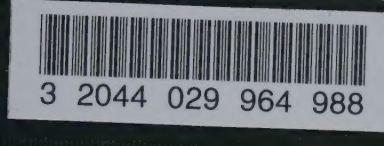
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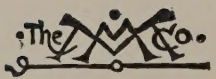

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EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS
FOR
PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY

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PREFACE

Some word of explanation is surely appropriate for a text which differs so radically in content, organization and implicit method from the standard works in educational psychology. This syllabus is an endeavor to practice what educational psychology preaches. It applies in the educational psychology course the principle that material should be learned in the form in which it is to be used. It abandons the idea of teacher or text book setting forth a series of propositions somehow to be absorbed and some day to be applied. It calls upon the teacher to be a kind of learning engineer. The activity is in the learner. The teacher stimulates, guides, and enriches this active process. The learner is to feel a need, formulate the problem, seek answers, organize data, and test hypotheses. This is not merely the formula of the classroom. It is the mental activity which should continue throughout a lifetime of professional growth.

Not only the method but also the content of courses in educational psychology has received abundant and, perhaps deserved, criticism. It has been called too theoretical and abstract. It has been accused of following the interests of researchers rather than the needs of teachers. It has seemed to some to have become academic and systematized, a new scheme and logic rather than a professional service. Time and attention appeared to center, in some courses, upon the controversies which energize psychologists rather than upon insights which enlighten teachers.

A first attempt to provide a basic syllabus which would select the materials teachers most need; present them in cases sufficiently common, concrete, and complex, to resemble real teaching; organize them in categories teachers are accustomed to use; encourage original investigation but provide the basic

facts and viewpoints; and allow for the greatest flexibility in adjusting to individual differences, eventuated in the book, "Sketches In and Out of School." This the authors published in tentative form in 1927, hoping to give so novel an approach a baptism of fire. Experience with this first book seemed to show that the basic idea was sound, although the original presentation had numerous defects. In this revision of that first attempt, new chapters and new cases appear, questions have been altered to provide for more pointed discussion, bibliographies have been revised and rearranged, much more has been written on how to use the syllabus, and some new materials supplementing traditional text content have been created for the Appendix. A "Handbook of Evidence in Educational Psychology" is designed to accompany this syllabus, bringing to students in one publication the relevant empirical data now widely scattered through more than a score of periodicals.

To the graduate students of Teachers College who suggested cases, criticized references, raised questions and bore with the experiments of their teachers, greatest acknowledgment is due. Especial gratitude is expressed to Rosalind Blum and Laura Krieger for the care with which they have contributed to the bibliography. To many teachers of educational psychology who have aided in the adventure with "Sketches" and who have inspired the faith that underlies this volume, we are under lasting obligation.

R. B. S.
G. W.

New York, N. Y.
December, 1929

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EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY

INTRODUCTION FOR THE STUDENT AND THE TEACHER

SUGGESTIONS FOR USING THE SYLLABUS

Everyone who is successful in living is, whether he knows it or not, making use of good psychology. The solution for the complex problems met outside and inside of the school room may be very simply stated. Problems are solved by changes in human beings. The essential changes may take place in our desires or in the behavior of other persons. The learning may involve ways of reacting to other people or to things. Changes in things depend, for the most part, upon changes in persons. Viewed from this angle, the prerequisite for the solution of any problem is the ability to bring about changes in the responses made by one or more human beings.

Of course, the problems do not vanish at this statement. Psychology offers no magic password for the mastery of the world. It does, however, in some degree make it possible, as Thorndike has suggested, for the ordinary person to learn how to do what some rare genius in human relationships might have done without study. It does offer a point of view and a method of approach. It insists upon searching for useful ways of dealing with personal and social problems. Faced with any problem, the suggested procedure is to study and analyze the difficulty, to examine proposed solutions, to measure the better solutions, to experiment in new situations, to refine and to integrate the results.

Choosing What Cases to Discuss

Educational psychology is not a systematic logic. It is a selection from the findings of psychology of those facts and

principles which prove helpful to educators. Educators are, or ought to be, busy in a very broad enterprise. Education goes on not only in classes but in athletics, vocational guidance, newspaper reading, gang activities, homes, churches, moving picture shows, strikes, wars and many other social activities. The professions of education are uncounted, but there are surely hundreds of different jobs carried on by persons who conceive of themselves as in some true sense educators. The particular phases of psychology that will be helpful will vary, therefore, with different training groups. Recent high school graduates preparing during only two years for an average period of service of about three years as an elementary school teacher with no further training, will of necessity choose the cases having a direct and immediate contribution to successful grade school teaching. Even in this situation, however, it should be remembered that teaching success and failure turn usually about matters of "teacher's personality," "good morale and discipline," "being well liked in the community," more than about true-false tests or method of teaching subtraction. If students are looking forward to service in supervisory or administrative positions, the significance of understanding the quirks of human likes and dislikes, and particularly the social forces which appear to control the way in which whole masses of adults react, is even greater.

The cases to be discussed will vary, then, from class to class. More cases are suggested here than can profitably be analyzed in a single course. It is suggested that at the beginning of the course, all the chapter headings be reviewed, the teacher giving the group some idea of the significance of each section. Discuss each section in the light of its importance for preventing failure and creating more successful professional careers. Then an approximate apportionment of time for each section can be laid out with the full coöperation of the students themselves. Turning next to an intensive study of the first chapter, choose for discussion those few cases which can well be covered within the available time. The following suggestions may prove useful in improving this choice of cases.

a. Where possible, secure the judgment at the end of the term from classes of similar purpose, as to the cases they have found most and least fruitful.

b. A case may be important in practice but dependent for solution mainly upon knowledge of administrative or historical or other subject matter. The aim in this course is to secure analysis of the psychological factors involved. Therefore, the cases which depend, at bottom, upon understanding human behavior are likely to be most worth study in this course.

c. Whenever it is possible to substitute concrete living situations with which some members of the class are immediately concerned, this should be done. Sometimes this may be achieved by assigning each student to act as a big brother or big sister for a pupil in the training school. The first enterprise might be planning a party for these children. Then the questions of children's interests and activities for various ages and for each sex would be urgent. In similar, if somewhat less vivid fashion, the situations observed on playground, in homes, and in the training school may be utilized for discussion. A guide to reading and thinking may sometimes be found by connecting this real problem with one of the cases in this book, involving the same fundamental principles. Care should, of course, be taken to match the fundamental questions of human nature, not the superficial details of the situations.

d. It is not necessary for all members of the class to work on the same case. Some without much previous preparation may take a simpler problem, while students with exceptional background and ability may be put at work upon more involved cases involving similar principles. Not only differences in ability but differences in interest may be met in this way. Small committees may work upon cases of special interest, reporting results for criticism to the entire class.

e. The extent to which a particular case is cultivated can be

varied. One problem will often offer leads in a multitude of directions. The group will have to decide whether to bring them up in this connection or leave them to be brought up again in connection with other cases in some later chapter.

f. One test of good teaching is the extent to which the set, readiness, urge, drive, understanding, will-to-know, of the pupils can be focussed at the beginning of the unit of learning. Whatever participation by them in the choice or creation of problems to be studied enhances this desire to learn is likely to be worth all of the time it consumes.

Suggestions for Student Preparation

The aim in discussing each problem should not be to use it merely as an excuse for setting forth many facts. Rather attention should be directed to the development of skill in (1) analyzing the problem to get at the real difficulty; (2) suggesting reasonable explanations and solutions; (3) choosing facts which have a real bearing on the problem; (4) utilizing principles which are sound and relevant; (5) selecting the best of the proposed explanations and solutions; (6) generalizing the results so as to apply to the widest possible range of cases, at the same time recognizing the limits of the general statement. No answers will be found in the back of the book. The best answer is that which takes account of all the evidence, and in the last analysis, when put into operation, works. One great advantage of the use of problems, discovered in the training school or in the experience of the group, is that the solutions can actually be put into operation and tested. Often, however, this is not immediately practicable. For some of the suggested problems the tests will take generations. But where final solutions are impossible, tentative solutions must serve as a basis for action. Using such knowledge as is available, the class and instructor together should search for a new basis of understanding, more accurate and more inclusive of all of the elements of the problem than that with which any person began the discussion.

The effective use of such a process as is described above would seem to include:

a. The analysis of the problem to see at what points information is needed.
b. The gathering of as much information as possible.
c. The application of these data to the problems.

The first and third parts of the process will be described in the section on "Class Discussion," which follows later. Suggestions for gathering of information will be discussed here.

WHERE TO LOOK FOR INFORMATION:

a. General References: Any of the textbooks listed in this introduction may be used in connection with almost every case. They will be most helpful in describing generalizations about original nature, individual differences, and learning. A summary of such generalizations will be found in the Appendix (ABC of Educational Psychology).

The task in connection with these generalization is to see the implications for the problem at hand. How does the law of effect operate in this situation? What does it mean for this problem to know that individuals differ from one another in a certain manner? etc.

b. Special References: The bibliography at the end of each chapter and bibliographies of related chapters contain references which deal more specifically with the problems under a particular topic. Many of these are reports of experiments, obviously of varying worth. Some points to keep in mind in evaluating evidence are:

(*a*) Degree of Subjectivity: Other things being equal, the more objective the measures used, the more valuable the references. Opinions unsupported by further evidence may be valuable but must be used with caution. Be especially suspicious of strong emotional feeling. Its presence often indicates dearth of real evidence.

(*b*) Adequacy of control: Experimental results in which the group has not been matched with a control group must be

handled with caution. It does not help much to know that 80% of delinquents come from homes in which discipline is defective, unless we know the incidence of this factor for a similar non-delinquent group. Selection of cases may alter results. Students taking Latin in high school may do better than those who do not, but this may be because they are a superior group at the start.

(*c*) Number of cases: Results tend to increase in value when based on larger numbers. Statistical measures of variability (standard deviation and probable error) help on this point, but often are difficult to interpret. Do not be deceived by false appearances of accuracy. Coefficients of correlation are sometimes given in four decimal places which are not reliable beyond the first figure.

(*d*) Validity of terminology: Has the author stated what he means by his various terms? If he is reporting results on honesty, for example, does he state clearly in terms of verifiable behavior what it is he designates by the term honesty?

(*e*) Relation of conclusions to data: It is possible to have unimpeachable data and still have conclusions which are unsound. In general make more use of author's data and less of his conclusions. The tables may give their message more accurately than the general summary.

(*f*) Degree of relatedness to problem under consideration: Results on sections in a third grade are not directly applicable to problem of having sections in high school. Results from rats may or may not be applicable to situations involving humans.

Some plan of dividing up references is desirable. If the matter is left to chance, there is a tendency for students to concentrate on a few references attractive in title or easy to obtain. References may be assigned to committees or individuals. One method for use with individuals is to ask each student to be responsible for one of the references which begins

with the same or approximately the same letter as the student's name.

If it is impossible to cover all references, some suggestions for selection should be given by the instructor. It has been found helpful to keep the comments of previous classes as to the usefulness of various references. One should be careful, however, that such a judgment does not exclude important dissenting evidence or articles more difficult to obtain or digest. In each of the chapter bibliographies a few of the books have been starred. These represent the best nuclei for discussion if the class does not have access to references in periodicals.

In addition to covering the material in the bibliographies many classes will wish to look further. The bibliographies included here are not complete, but represent the authors' selections of what seemed to be promising material, modified by experience in having classes use them. There is some material of previous years which might well be added and there will also be a steady output of new studies in the future. Some helpful guides at this point are:

a. Psychological Abstracts—a noncritical summary of articles and books in psychology. Index number each December.

b. Social Science Abstracts—a similar service for History, Economics, Sociology, Social Psychology and related fields.

c. Psychological Index—lists articles and books under topic and author.

d. Reader's Guide—Includes educational articles in certain magazines not covered by *c.*

e. Loyola Educational Digest—a monthly summary of a dozen significant current articles, each on a separate card, and classified for filing.

f. Psychological Bulletin—summarizes studies related to specific topics, problems, or areas.

g. Bibliography of Bibliographies, compiled by C. M. Louttit. Nat. Res. Council No. 15, 1928.

h. Monroe, W. S. *Ten years of educational research, 1918-1927* Univ. of Illinois, Bureau of Educational Research, Bulletin, 1928, Vol. XXV, No. 51.

HOW TO GET THIS INFORMATION ECONOMICALLY

After all such preliminary orientation, it will still be necessary that students know how to cover a rather wide range of material in a short time and extract the relevant information. This is the sort of skill which a student will find very helpful in solving new problems in his later professional work. The first three suggestions which follow refer to books, the others to both books and periodicals.

a. Preface—Very often one can here find out the author's purpose and general plan of attack.

b. Table of contents and index—Rapid survey of these eliminates much irrelevant material. The search can thus be narrowed down to one or more chapters.

c. Subheadings within the chapter and chapter summaries —These will help give the general set-up and further locate the specific contributions, if any.

d. Rapid reading—By reading initial and final sentences of paragraphs and letting the eye move rapidly over the remaining content, striving only for general idea of material, a large amount can be covered in a very short time. Sometimes the reading of the title of an article, the headings of the tables, and the essential figures in the tables will tell the whole story. Occasionally the author summarizes his findings, and the article can best be read by going backward from each summary statement to the evidence upon which it rests. Such methods enable the reader to skip considerable amounts of discussion which are merely expansions of the specific findings.

e. Careful reading—After pertinent subject matter has been found, this is analyzed according to criteria listed above. The aim is to get in the shortest possible space the general outline of what was done, including whatever data are necessary for proper evaluation, and the results obtained.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION:

Assuming that a case of vigorous concern to the class has been chosen, and that students are ready to find resource materials upon it, the remaining task is that of making the best use of class-room time.

Some experience has indicated that it is well to use the last fifteen minutes of the preceding period for "opening up" a new case. Several types of question have been found useful for this purpose. One is, "What seems to be the heart of this issue?" "What is the gist of the case?" "What is the fundamental underlying question here?" For less advanced groups it may be better to begin with an awareness of the differences. "What are some of the possible ways of dealing with this situation?" "What would educational conservatives say?" "What would radicals say?" "What would business men, unfamiliar with educational science, say?" "What would the children say?" If this type of question is used, it may well be followed with, "Why do some prefer this type of solution?" "Why do others differ?", leading finally to the question, "What, then, seems to be the fundamental issue behind these differences of opinion?"

The study period between class sessions may be used for getting acquainted with the available experimental evidence and for thinking out the bearing of these facts and principles.

In the ensuing class discussion it is usually well to begin with some possible conclusions in terms of the educator's response to the case situation. "What seems to be one desirable method of handling such a case?" Then other possibilities should be drawn out. "What else would be possible?" "Did anyone work out a procedure markedly different from either of these?" The proposals may be noted on the blackboard.

The value in such questions is that the underlying psychological issue assumes professional importance only in the light of the different procedures which grow out of it. If the class begins and ends with the concrete application, the discussion of the issue has, presumably, more meaning for them.

This bringing out of the action-proposals should occupy not

more than five or ten minutes if the total discussion is to last one period. The next step in discussion, paralleling Dewey's outline of the thinking process, is to appraise these proposals. One good type of question is "Why?" "Why do you recommend such a procedure?" Perhaps better is the question, "What would happen if this proposal (pointing to one which has been offered) were put in operation?" Ask for reasons leading students to expect such consequences. Get the psychological assumptions clear. Then relate the available evidence to these assumptions. The teacher will usually find it possible to supply additional facts which should be taken into account. It is important, the authors believe, that the new evidence which the teacher has to offer, or the criticism of evidence offered by others, be supplied at the time when there is a felt need for guidance in order to solve a realistic problem. Of course, many excellent teachers will find it possible to get the class to criticize evidence offered by fellow-students without themselves participating very much. This procedure takes more time and is less satisfying to the teacher than would be a quick rebuttal of errors and a quick setting forth of the "truth" by the teacher. Such a statement always seems to settle things so neatly and with dispatch. There is some reason, however, for believing that with patience the students can themselves work out the flaws and straighten out their own thinking. On issues where thinking is commonly confused, it is probably worth while to allow this extra time. On minor issues, or issues of largely technical concern, it probably suits everyone better to have the teacher clear the matter up quickly.

After the consequences of each major proposal or type of proposal (usually it is possible to group a dozen specific answers into three or four general types for this discussion) have been analyzed in the light of the relevant evidence, there should remain a few minutes for formulating the most useful solution, and noticing how it might work out in the practical case. The best solution may not be any one of those first proposed. It may be a new proposal, combining the virtues of several of the original suggestions. While it is not the business

of the course in educational psychology to work out in detail the administrative machinery, it is reasonable to try to get some understanding of the way in which the psychological insight would work out in practice. The necessary changes may be revolutionary, but they should be named and noticed, else psychology will remain up in the air, all right as a theory, but seldom working into the behavior of educators.

Summarizing is one of the main tasks of a discussion leader. Again and again it may be necessary to trace the general outline of the argument. No case should be left without some sort of review. This need not assume any one correct answer. Where there is genuine difference of opinion in the group, after examination of the existing evidence, this difference should be respected. Whether the final summary is given by the teacher, given orally by some pupil, or written out by a committee of pupils, it should be scrupulously fair to minority viewpoints.

A good form for the summary might be:

a. Proposals first suggested.
b. Main underlying questions faced.
c. Evidence and conclusion with reference to each underlying question.
d. Application of findings to this particular case.
e. Generalization to other types of situation involving similar fundamental questions.

During the course of the discussion certain problems frequently arise. The "Suggestions for Leading Effective Group Thinking" (see Appendix) endeavor to point out some of the details of technique. The references for Chapter XVII may offer further aid. Ordinarily a leader of lively intellect, dealing with a problem of real concern to the group, sensitive to the points of conflict and misunderstanding, free to encourage others to use their own minds, will need little aid beyond that which experience will bring. This experience may be recorded after each discussion, with hints for doing it better next time. Even when this is done it seems to be true that the best discussions are unpredictable. A case which seems a "dud" with

one class may arouse spirited inquiry the next year. An unexpected question may turn the discussion away from one issue to another, opening up new channels of thought both for students and teacher. One of the best consequences claimed for discussion in classes is that teachers are less likely to remain satisfied year after year, with the formulæ which once seemed useful.

GENERAL REFERENCES

The following list of texts will be found useful for the general principles of psychology. Since these references may be needed at any point, they will be given here and will not be repeated in the chapter references unless they have some more specific bearing.

Benson, Lough, Skinner, and West. *Psychology for Teachers.* Ginn & Co., 1926. A general text, omitting for the most part, factual data, but giving useful discussions of the biological background of learning, the place of sensation, perception, attention, thinking, memory, expression, and play in learning.

Bolton, F. E. *Everyday Psychology for Teachers.* Scribners, 1923. An exposition of such facts and principles of psychology as the author feels are relevant for "young teachers, old teachers and others who are interested in the subject of education." Numerous applications to school situations.

Dashiell, J. F. *Fundamentals of Objective Psychology.* Houghton Mifflin, 1928. A comprehensive survey of general psychology from the objective standpoint. Although not written especially from point of view of education, it has a large amount of experimental and illustrative material of value. An advanced text.

Gates, A. I. *Elementary Psychology,* revised edition. Macmillan, 1928. Same general organization as the book below, but written to meet needs of courses in general psychology. Fewer applications to education and more to other fields of human endeavor. Contains considerable new material and is valuable supplement to other book for students in education.

Gates, A. I. *Psychology for Students of Education.* Macmillan, 1923, revised, 1929. An elementary text giving a systematic account of some of the facts and principles of psychology which seem to be related to education, with illustrations and applications from this field.

JORDAN, A. M. *Educational Psychology*. Henry Holt & Co., 1928. A text of moderate difficulty designed to meet the problems of teachers. Many illustrations and applications. Considerable use of statistical studies wherever available.

PINTNER, R. *Educational Psychology*. Henry Holt & Co., 1929. An elementary text for the student of education in which the attempt is to develop an understanding of some of the more general principles bearing upon education rather than systematically to cover the field.

ROBINSON, E. S. *Practical Psychology*. Macmillan, 1926. The subtitle, Human Nature in Everyday Life, is a good description of the book. Aimed to meet needs of students whose knowledge of psychology is to be obtained from one course. Organized around traditional topics, but treatment is practical.

SANDIFORD, P. *Educational Psychology*. Longmans, Green, 1928. An advanced text treating the materials of psychology objectively. Makes use of experimental data. Chapters on the psychology of different elementary school subjects. Otherwise the implications for school situations are not extensively developed.

STARCH, D. *Educational Psychology*, revised edition. Macmillan, 1927. The major portion of this text is devoted to reports of investigators of the psychology of learning and the learning of elementary school subjects.

STRONG, E. K. *Introductory Psychology for Teachers*. Warwick and York, 1919. The starting points in the lessons in this text are concrete experiences of everyday life. These are related to facts and principles of learning and individual differences. Considerable attention to physiological background of sensory processes.

THORNDIKE, E. L. *Educational Psychology* (3 volumes) and *Educational Psychology, Briefer Course*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1913. The briefer course is a condensation of the three volumes, leaving out much of the detailed experimental descriptions. The three volume work summarizes and interprets the material available up to that time on Original Nature, Learning, Work and Fatigue, and Individual Differences.

WOODWORTH, R. S. *Psychology, a Study of Mental Life*. Henry Holt & Co., Revised edition, 1929. A very readable elementary text in general psychology. Not written primarily for students of education, but very useful as a reference or source book.

Most of the current discussion and experiment in psychology which is of immediate value for problems of education can be found in the following journals:

American Journal of Psychology, published quarterly by Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; subscription price $6.50 per year; edited by M. F. Washburn, K. M. Dallenbach, Madison Bentley, and E. G. Boring. This covers the field of general and experimental psychology. It contains articles of academic and theoretical interest as well as experiments related to educational psychology.

American Journal of Sociology, published bi-monthly by the University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.; subscription price, $4.00 per year, Ellsworth Faris, Robert Park, et al. Editors. Covers the field of sociology and contains material in social psychology.

British Journal of Psychology, issued by British Psychology Society in two sections, a general section and a medical section (British Journal of Medical Psychology). Each section is published quarterly. Articles of value for Educational Psychology will be found in both sections.

Educational Administration and Supervision, published monthly except June to August by Warwick and York, Baltimore, Md., price $3.00 per year; edited by Bagley, Bode, Briggs, Charters, Coffman, Snedden, Strayer, and Withers. It contains original investigations and general discussions in the field of administration, supervision and teacher training.

Elementary School Journal, edited by the faculty of the School of Education of University of Chicago. Published monthly from September to June by Univ. Chicago Press. Price, $2.50. Includes experimental studies and summaries of research in connection with elementary education.

Forum of Education, edited by C. A. Valentine, assisted by an editorial board of prominent British educators. Three issues yearly, February, June and November. Contains some experimental studies.

Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, published quarterly by the Boyd Printing Company, Albany, N. Y.; subscription price $5.00; edited by Morton Prince. Well described by its title. Articles cover a wide miscellany of problems, and often present results of interesting investigations and speculations.

Journal of Applied Psychology, published quarterly by the Indiana University Press, Bloomington, Ind.; subscription price $5.00; edited by James P. Porter and William F. Book. Interesting popular applications of psychology to industrial and other fields.

Journal of Educational Method, published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College; $3.00 per year; James F. Hosic, Editor. Presents reports of informal and occasional technical experiments by teachers interested in improving their methods, particularly in developing the project approach.

Journal of Educational Psychology, published monthly except June to August by Warwick and York, Inc., Baltimore, Md., at $4.00 per year; Harold Rugg, Chairman of Board of Editors. This journal is devoted primarily to the scientific study of problems of learning and teaching. The articles are technical and significant.

Journal of Educational Research, published monthly except July and August by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., subscription price, $4.00 per year; Editor, B. R. Buckingham. This magazine contains reports of experiments and investigations in public education. It is less technical than the "Journal of Educational Psychology" and gives more attention to practical problems of teaching.

Journal of Social Psychology, Carl Murchison, editor. Clark University Press, Worcester, Mass. First number, February, 1930.

Mental Hygiene, published quarterly by the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, Inc., 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City; subscription price $3.00 per year. Experimental, theoretical, and practical discussions of problems of mental hygiene, personality adjustments, etc.

The Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, published quarterly by Clark University, Worcester, Mass.; subscription price $7.00 per year; edited by Carl Murchison. This discusses primarily the psychology of childhood and of development. The articles are apt to be reports of rather comprehensive studies.

Personnel Journal, published bi-monthly by Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, Md.; subscription price $5.00 per year; W. V. Bingham, Editor. It is the official organ of the Personnel Research Federation and it publishes original investigations pertaining to personnel and industrial psychology.

Progressive Education, published quarterly by the Progressive Edu-

cation Association, Washington, D. C.; subscription price $2.00; Gertrude Hartman, Editor. Contains discussions and descriptions of the activities of experimental schools.

Psychological Abstracts, published monthly by Psychological Review Company, Princeton, N. J.; subscription price $6.00 per year; edited by W. S. Hunter. This is the magazine to read in order to keep in touch with a wide variety of developments in the general field of psychology. It presents non-critical abstracts of the most important current literature appearing in other periodicals.

Psychological Bulletin, published monthly by the Psychological Review Company, Princeton, N. J.; subscription price $5.50 per year, edited by Samuel W. Fernberger. Presents summaries of the current literature upon given fields and topics. Previous to the establishment of the "Psychological Abstracts" it carried on a considerable service of the same sort now offered in the "Psychological Abstracts."

Psychological Index, published by the Psychological Review Co., Princeton, N. J., at $2.00 per year. This contains a listing under topical classifications of all of the psychological literature of the year. It covers many foreign as well as American publications.

Psychological Review, published bi-monthly by the Psychological Review Company, Princeton, N. J.; subscription price $5.00; edited by Howard C. Warren and John B. Watson. Primarily given to the theoretical discussions and the philosophic aspects of various psychological points of view.

Religious Education, published by the Religious Education Association, 308 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill., at $5.00 per year. This contains discussions of moral and religious psychology, philosophy and education, with an increasing amount of experimental literature.

School and Society, published weekly by the Science Press, Grand Central Terminal, New York City, at $5.00 per year; edited by J. McKeen Cattell. This contains each week one article upon educational research and statistics. The bulk of the magazine is given to educational discussions and to news notes.

Social Science Abstracts, published monthly by Social Science Research Council, Columbia Univ., at $6.00 per year. Edited by F. Stuart Chapin. Non-critical abstracts of the world's periodical literature in the social sciences.

Teachers College Record, published monthly except July and August by Teachers College, Columbia University; subscription price $2.50 per year. Publishes a wide variety of studies representing the many types of contributions which Teachers College makes. Occasionally these are in the field of psychological and technical educational research.

I. STUDYING

1. ABOVE THE PLATEAU

A group of graduate students decided that they could greatly increase their efficiency if they could improve their rate of reading. They gleaned suggestions from the experience which psychologists have had in remedial work with children. Then they went to work. They decided that a special practice period was not necessary, but that they would have to apply these suggestions in connection with all of the reading which they did. At the end of two weeks, they found that the average time which they spent upon the reading of a given chapter of material was only half as great as the time which they had previously employed. They believed, and some rather superficial tests indicated, that they were learning as much from the study as they had previously learned in twice the time.

Questions

1. What suggestions have you found effective in your own experience in improving the rate of reading?
2. Can people understand what they are reading if they read more rapidly? What evidence is there?
3. What experiment in reading would it be desirable and possible to try out in this class? What material should be used? What measures will be needed? What will the time schedule be? What errors may be avoided? If this is all done, what will the results prove?

2. SKILLS

A graduate student was interested in measuring his typewriting ability. He had learned typewriting himself, and had

secured a book from one of the companies and had learned to use all ten fingers. He found, however, that his typing was comparatively slow, not very much faster than very rapid writing in longhand, and he was also inclined to make numerous errors. He had been going on like this, about the same level, for the last ten years, never doing any practicing and being content with the ability which he had. He is now forty-two years old.

Questions

1. List similar skills in your own case and try to estimate your degree of proficiency. Are you satisfied? What would it require in the way of time and effort to improve? Would you describe your present level of ability as a plateau?
2. Is the plateau on which the student finds himself probably somewhere near his physiological limit?
3. At his age is it worth while for him to attempt to improve? If so, how would he go about it?

3. TELL ME HOW

A supervisor was conferring with a teacher whose class had apparently earned a low A. Q. The teacher explained that she worked hard and she thought the class took their work with more than average seriousness. The pupils spent a good part of their time in school at study, and they did more home work than the pupils in several schools which were apparently accomplishing more. The supervisor suggested that it might be that the pupils were spending time on their work but not using that time efficiently.

"All right," said the teacher, "can you tell me how to make it efficient? I'll be glad to do anything that I can."

"Well," said the supervisor, "what would your psychology suggest?"

The teacher said, "Why, that pupils should exercise the correct responses with satisfaction, but I don't see how to get them to do it."

Questions

1. What other suggestions can you add to this one? In the application of the law of effect what analysis can you make which might help the teacher?
2. What should be the function of the supervisor in a situation of this sort? Was she making good use of psychological principles in dealing with the teacher?
3. What else does one need in order to be successful besides a knowledge of the general principles of psychology similar to what is included in the ABC of Educational Psychology (Appendix)?

4. IN TRAINING

Miss Phillips is superintendent of a training school for nurses. Her students are widely different in their previous training. Some of them are high school graduates with no experience. A few are college graduates. Nurses in training schools are expected to acquire a wide factual background, while at the same time they are learning skills of various sorts. They are expected to know something of anatomy, physiology, bacteriology, chemistry, personal hygiene, dietetics, materia medica, and psychology; they must also learn how to make beds, sterilize instruments, prepare and administer certain prescriptions, etc., and during all this time they must keep patients and doctors in good humor.

Questions

1. What are the various sorts of abilities that a nurse needs for such a situation? List these in the order of the amount of improvement you think possible.
2. What training should be given to students to help them in memorizing? What other suggestions would aid them to acquire their necessary information?
3. How are skills most efficiently acquired?
4. Are plateaus a universal characteristic of learning curves?

5. What should be the relation of telling, showing, and pupil practice?
6. What evidence is there in regard to the effect of each of the following factors on mental work?

too much noise
poor lighting
poor ventilation
smoking
poor posture
bad teeth
tonsils and adenoids
eating too rapidly
use of coffee
too little sleep

5. LONG LONG THOUGHTS

A scientist who was busily engaged in his laboratory was trying to set up a difficult piece of apparatus. It was one he had to devise himself and he was trying to find a way to adjust the speed so as to keep the paddle rotating at a constant rate. Suddenly he dropped his work, ran over to his work table and jotted down a few notes. There had suddenly flashed upon him the solution of another problem, entirely different, over which he had been working for a period of years, and one which he had seemed unable to solve.

Another man was sitting quietly in his chair. He had tables and charts spread out before him, and around the wall were some diagrams and figures. He sat motionless for a long while, apparently simply letting the material sink in. Then he made a preliminary sketch or two, called in his assistant and gave him the necessary directions for finishing the plans for the vast tower over which he had been perplexed for a long time.

The room was perfectly quiet. A pleasant fire glowed on the hearth, and nearby, curled up in a big overstuffed chair,

was a girl reading a novel. Suddenly she closed the book, and while her eyes were still open, she was evidently not looking at anything in the room.

Questions

1. Is there anything in common between these three situations? Could the chief actors in each set be transposed?
2. Is there anything the schools can do in training for the activities illustrated here? Is it desirable that they should?
3. Psychologically, how do you explain each of these situations?
4. What is an idea? A generalization? A concept? What is mind?
5. How do new ideas originate?

6. CONCEPTS

Miss Smith has the Senior social science class. These students have had previous courses in history, literature, and social science, and this course is to bring together into a unified whole the various elements that have been acquired in the previous courses. In discussing the course with Miss Smith, the principal points out the necessity for checking up very carefully on the notions that the children have corresponding to such terms as patriotism, nationalism, democracy, industrial revolution, government, etc. He feels that there is much loose thinking among the population at large in regard to these terms, and since these pupils in many cases will leave school at the end of their high school work, he is anxious that the teacher be sure that they have the best possible conception of these terms.

Questions

1. What are the first reactions that come to you when you think of each of these words? How did you come to attach these meanings to these words? How might one explain the development of an abstract concept such as "roundness," "bigness," "justice," or "nation"?

2. How are the meanings which you notice related to the meanings attached by others to the same words? What is the relation of the meanings of such terms to a student's age?
3. How can the teacher find out what the pupils think these terms mean?
4. How can she go about it to change the meanings that are attached to these terms?
5. Is there any way that she can so order her teaching that particular words which she will not be able to deal with in class will be more apt to be used wisely by the students after they leave her class?
6. How can she measure her success?

7. *A PSYCHOLOGICAL VENTURE IN MEMORIZING CHINESE*

(From C. H. Robertson)

I.—Introduction

"The writer of this paper formerly had great difficulty in memorizing in English, not to speak of Chinese. As a result of the method here suggested, he had the very delightful and encouraging experience of finding that memorizing, even in Chinese, could be made easy, and to a very high degree permanent.

"As a result of the method, the writer was able to thoroughly enjoy the memorizing of 300 Chinese proverbs, and then, as a further test 100 German, 100 French, and 50 Russian proverbs, also a considerable amount of other Chinese matter, including such things as Bible verses, many classic sayings from Confucius and Mencius, the wonderful book called 'The Three-Character Classic,' several sections of the 'Sacred Edict,' etc.

II.—The Method Applied to Chinese Proverbs

"*a.* Select your proverbs.

"*b.* These proverbs should be carefully inscribed on cards or

slips. Standard 3 x 5 inch library cards are strongly recommended, or, preferably, heavy paper. The Chinese should be on one side, and on the other there should be written, preferably by typewriter, first, a very literal translation of the proverb, and, second, the best colloquial English translation that can be discovered. It is suggested that at least 100 proverbs be attempted. There should be provided, in addition to the cards on which the proverbs are written, three division, or tab, cards marked, 'Memorized,' 'Partly Memorized,' and 'Unmemorized.'

"*c.* Select at random a group of twenty-five such proverbs, and read them over daily with your teacher, more or less as a sound exercise and in the following fashion:

1. Hold up the card so that you yourself can see the English, and your teacher sitting opposite you the Chinese.
2. Look carefully at the English so as to get just as clearly in mind the meaning of the proverb as possible.
3. Listen carefully to the Chinese teacher's reading of the proverb, being sure that he reads it at normal speed and as a whole.
4. While he reads aloud, watch carefully his lips.
5. Repeat aloud yourself and at normal speed, the whole proverb, unless you find it too difficult to do so, in which case take it in parts, but before you finish be able to repeat it as a whole smoothly, and to the satisfaction of your teacher. In the case of a proverb with which you have extreme difficulty, put it aside and return to it later, even getting help from some experienced friend if necessary in order to straighten out the difficulty; but under no circumstances neglect to clear up ultimately such difficult points, so as to leave no weak spots in the ground that you have covered. Be sure if possible that your teacher is critical of your pronunciation, rhythm, etc.
6. Now turn the card over and look carefully at the Chinese characters, repeating again aloud as you look. Note carefully the appearance of the characters, and in the case of

any with which you are unfamiliar make a hasty formation of the strokes so as to help to fix them in mind.

7. In carrying out this exercise avoid any worry, concern, great effort, or the expenditure of much time. It is mainly a rapid but careful reading exercise.
8. If the writer's experience is not misleading, you will, about the second or third day, when you look at the English of the proverbs, find that there are several which you can repeat. In such a case, put these aside under the heading, 'Partly Memorized,' testing yourself with them again on the next day, and if you find you can satisfactorily repeat them, then put them in the third group of 'Memorized.' It may be that you will not even have to wait until you come to the exercise with your teacher, but as you are walking along the street thinking of nothing in particular one of the proverbs will suddenly pop into your mind and you will find yourself repeating it automatically.
9. If, on any succeeding day, you find that you are not able to repeat those that you have put under the heading 'Partly Memorized' on the day before, put them right back into the 'Unmemorized' group and repeat the process.
10. Continue with the same twenty-five proverbs, without adding fresh material until you have them all in the section marked 'Memorized.' Then test the whole twenty-five, and if there are any on which you fail, lay them aside and put them in the next group of twenty-five which you are to memorize.

"It is suggested that it is very important to finish the group of twenty-five in the fashion indicated. A very great advantage in doing so is that those that are first and most easily memorized are gotten out of the way and you find yourself focusing on those that are most difficult, and furthermore you will find that with the increasing amount of concentration you can bring to bear you will speedily conquer them, and have a

great sense of enthusiasm and confidence in a good job well done."

Questions

1. As a psychologist, at what points would you commend Mr. Robertson's plan? Why?
2. At what points would you raise a question about or criticize the method which he advocates? Why?
3. What variations in this process would you suggest in the case of memorizing chemical formulæ, dates in history, squares and square roots, multiplication table, authors of given compositions?

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II. MEASUREMENT

A. INTELLIGENCE AND APTITUDE TESTS

1. INTELLIGENCE TESTS

Susie had just entered Elton elementary school after spending the first five grades in a small rural school. Up until the time she moved to the city, she had always lived in the country. The nearest post-office was in a village of about three hundred. The nearest large community was Booneville, a city of about five thousand, twenty miles away. It was only rarely that Susie had ever been there. Soon after she entered the city elementary school, the class was given an intelligence test, the like of which Susie had never seen. She made a score of 93. Her cousin, who was the same age but who had lived all her life in the city, had a score of 123. Susie's mother explained to the teacher that Susie had always been a slow worker, but she was very accurate.

Questions

1. Does the difference in scores made by the two girls represent a fair estimate of the difference in their abilities? If not, what do you think the difference should be? How would you determine the true difference?
2. What are the factors that determine a person's score in an intelligence test? What is the relative influence of each? Does this influence vary? Explain.
3. If you were the teacher of the class, would you make any use of the test as far as Susie was concerned?
4. Waiving for the moment the validity of the scores, what does it mean for a child to have an I. Q. of 93? Of 123?

2. INDIVIDUAL TESTING

The clinical psychologist was about to begin testing Robert who had been referred to him by the visiting teacher. For a while the psychologist talked about a variety of things trying to find out Robert's interests and to get him as much at ease as possible. Finally he asked Robert if he would like to play some games. Robert readily agreed and the test began. He was asked to do a variety of things—he repeated numbers forwards and backwards, he defined words, he explained how he would find a ball lost in a circular field, he gave the meaning of certain fables, and many other tasks.

Then the psychologist brought out some boards in which pieces of wood of various shapes were to be fitted into peculiarly shaped holes. All the time Robert was working the psychologist kept time with a stop-watch and also noted carefully the errors. When he finished the series, Robert was given a box in which were 10 mechanical objects which had been taken apart—a cupboard catch, a bicycle bell, a push button, etc.—and Robert was to put them together as quickly as he could. He was also given tests for different abilities connected with musical capacity, such as a rhythm test, a test for discrimination of pitch, etc. Another test covered his accomplishment in school subjects, and finally he had a test for art appreciation, where he was asked to choose from a long series of pairs of pictures, the one of each pair he best liked. When he had finished the psychologist shook hands with him and asked him how he liked it. "Fine," replied Robert. "May I come again and do some more?"

Questions

1. What were the different tests described above and what did each attempt to measure? How long do you imagine such a testing program lasted? How much did the psychologist know at the end of that time?
2. How were each of these tests constructed? What are the criteria of a good test?

3. What training is needed in order to give such tests? Why?
4. Of what value are the results to people not intimately acquainted with tests, such as teachers and parents?

3. NEEDED—A TESTING PROGRAM

A county superintendent recently sent the following letter to Teachers College:

"We have for a number of years given sporadically various types of intelligence and achievement tests. We now want to organize this work on a consecutive basis so that the best possible results may be achieved. Please give information on the following questions:

1. The best tests now available for procuring the I. Q. of the child.
2. The best time in a child's life to obtain an accurate I. Q. by tests indicated above.
3. The best intelligence tests now available, and the order in which they should be given if several are used on the same children.
4. The best grades in which to give the tests indicated under 3.
5. The best available tests for information in specific subjects.
6. The grades in which these may be given most advantageously, and the order in which it is wise to give these if several are used as tests in one specific subject."

Question

1. What advice would you give this superintendent?

B. CHARACTER TESTS

1. EXCELSIOR

A school superintendent was recently talking with a professor of education from one of the large universities.

"I have a number of problems that have been bothering me," the superintendent said. "It seems to me that you theorists are not quite consistent. I hear a great deal about the value and importance of character education. The attitudes that the children in my schools are forming are to be considered more important than the bits of knowledge they acquire. How do you dare say this when there is no agreement about what character is or how it can be measured? If character is a by-product as some claim, won't we be doing more harm than good by trying to measure it? What evidence that is worth anything do you have to show that attitudes are so valuable? Finally, if character is so important, aren't you defeating your own aims by the stress that is being laid upon the use of standardized educational tests?"

Questions

1. Are the questions which troubled the superintendent widespread today?
2. What is the present status of character testing? What is available for the superintendent and the teacher?
3. Does measurement do more good than harm? What have been the effects of the progress of educational tests upon education ?
4. Do you agree with Thorndike's statement, "Anything that exists, exists in some amount. If it exists in some amount it can be measured"?
5. What is the goal of measurements?

2. MEASURING MORALS

The following letter came from the principal of an excellent private school.

"My dear Professor:

"Would you please be so kind as to send me the names of some good character tests suitable to give girls ranging in age from 14 to 19 years? I have looked far and wide for a suitable

character test. Intelligence tests show that only 3% of our girls are below 100 I. Q. We believe that the unique contribution of our school is in its morale and character standards. Can you suggest measures which will help us discover how far this is true, and the cases which need special help?"

Questions

1. What items of information about character measurement would be most helpful to include in an answer to this letter?
2. How would the answer be affected by the type of ability range within the school?

3. SCIENTIFIC BENEVOLENCE

The Directors of the Community Chest in a western city were faced with the problem of deciding how much of the available income should be distributed to each of several organizations engaged, presumably, in character building. They wished to take account, not only of numbers reached, but also of the results secured. They wished to eliminate organizations which claimed much but really accomplished nothing. They wished to encourage organizations which could prove that they were really molding desirable personalities.

Questions

1. What sort of investigations might they profitably undertake? Would the results be unambiguous?
2. What measures, now available, would be best? Would they be sufficiently adequate to justify the investigation?

4. HOW ABOUT CHARLES?

Tests given to his classmates show that they believe Charles is always ready to work with others, apt to try to do little things to make others happy, to give generous help to worthy causes. His reputation is good for honesty and truthfulness, for

fair play, dependability, and keeping his word. Friends believe Charles is dutiful, and tries to do the right thing. He does not lose his temper, but they report that he gets rather quickly to the limit of his self-control. He is said to be happy and cheerful, whatever happens. They believe he is a hard worker, sticking to a task until it is finished, even though it is disagreeable and fatiguing. He is reported to be able to foresee and weigh consequences, apt to act wisely and calmly on his judgment of what is likely to happen. Friends call him a jolly good fellow, social-minded, candid, decent, forgiving, but arrogant.

Charles' teachers believe that he gets a good deal of pleasure out of school work and extra-activities. He impresses them as able to see the social significance of his work. He seems to show a high degree of social spirit and skill in coöperation. Charles himself reports that he does most of his school enterprises regularly, gladly, and successfully.

On tests of moral knowledge Charles scored average or above. These tests had to do with ethical comprehension, social attitudes, and judgment in ethical situations.

On various performance tests he was about average. He cheated 5 times, with 14 chances. He sometimes did as much as the average, sometimes more than average when it came to sharing a pencil kit with other children or bringing in pictures, stories, jokes, etc., to be given to sick children. In helping his classmates with a prize, he worked harder for a personal prize than for a group prize, but was, in general, sometimes more coöperative, sometimes less coöperative than average.

Confronted with temptations to meddle with puzzles, candy, and other attractive objects when to do so would be troublesome or unfair he was as able to resist these temptations as was the average. The same was true of his resistance to the temptation to look at pictures and jokes, or to read the ending of a story, rather than to do his best on routine work. In persistence at solving puzzles, working out difficult reading matter to get at the end of a story, keeping up a steady speed

at monotonous adding in order to win a prize, he did as well as average.

—(Adapted from records of the *Character Education Inquiry*).

Questions

1. Should Charles be given Excellent, Good, Fair, or Poor, in deportment? Why?
2. Among the data about Charles, which seem to you most significant for the judgment of his character? Which do you regard as of least consequence?
3. What is the school's responsibility for Charles' further character education?
4. What other data about Charles would be valuable in determining his character, or in guiding educational activities toward improving his character?

5. RATING SCALES

The following statements represent two points of view regarding the possibilities of using ratings for the measurement of certain qualities.

a. Ratings can never be of much service in the field of measurement and it is a waste of time to work with ratings instead of devoting every effort to the development of objective scales. Whenever a person rates something, he is trying to compare that thing with some idea in his mind. The results must necessarily be unreliable.

b. Ratings as ordinarily used in the past and as often used at present have not proved reliable, it is true, but that does not prove that all ratings are useless. When rating scales are carefully prepared, when the raters are trained in the task of rating, and when it is possible to get a sufficiently large number of such raters, the resulting ratings have a reliability as high as a good pencil and paper test (.80 to .90). The progress of measurement depends to a large extent upon the successful use of ratings, since they are practically always

an important part of the criteria against which tests are standardized.

Questions

1. How much truth is there in each of the above statements? What is the evidence?
2. What are the rules for the preparation of usable rating scales? Are there any suggestions for their use besides the ones given above?

C. STANDARDIZED ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

1. AN ACHIEVEMENT SURVEY

The Research Bureau of Oak City had just made available the report on the survey of the entire school system from kindergarten through high school. In addition to intelligence ratings, each pupil had been given a battery of achievement tests. In the elementary schools, the Stanford Achievement test supplemented by a writing scale had been used; in the high school a variety of tests covering English, Latin, French, Spanish, Algebra, Geometry, Science, History, and different vocational subjects had been used. The report compared different classes and different schools and also showed how the city as a whole compared with similar communities for whom data were available.

The teachers' comments for the most part were unfavorable. The criticisms may be summarized around the following points:

a. Tests included many items which students had never had a chance to learn. Second and third year French students, for example, took the same test as first year students. Elementary students in the fifth grade were asked science questions and science was not part of the curriculum. The dictation test for spelling had several very unusual words.

b. Tests omitted a large amount of material which the children knew. There was nothing in the arithmetic tests

about such things as least common multiple and every other test could be shown to have similar omissions.

c. Many important things were not included in the testing program. A number of teachers pointed out that the things they were interested in were habits of work and attitudes and such things did not enter in at all.

d. The administration of the tests prejudiced the results. There was a premium on speed and teachers knew that if they had been permitted to give a few explanatory comments at points, their classes would have done much better.

e. The results were of little value. After all each teacher did the very best she could under the circumstances and it mattered little how her class stood with respect to other classes in the city and even less with respect to other cities. Better spend the money to hire a few new teachers to lighten the load.

Questions

1. How much truth is there in each of the above criticisms? What has been your experience with such tests?
2. What possible advantages might follow the use of standardized achievement tests? Can the teacher herself use such tests or must trained testers handle them? If someone else does handle the testing program, can the teachers make use of the results?
3. How are such tests as were used above constructed? What are the assumptions underlying this construction?
4. When should teachers use standardized tests and when should they use their own?

2. AGES AND AGES

One of the pupils in Miss Harris' class was tested by the school psychologist and the following is the report returned.

Chronological age	10—0
Reading age	11—3

Arithmetic age	9—5
Spelling age	8—11
Writing age	9—2
Language age	10—7
Educational age	9—10
Mental age	10—5

Questions

1. What is the meaning of a reading age of 11—3? How is it determined?
2. What is the I.Q. (intelligence quotient) of this child? What is his E.Q. (educational quotient)? What is his A.G. (accomplishment quotient). What is his Sp.Q. (spelling quotient)? Of what use is each of these quotients?
3. What use could be made of the information in this report? What precautions should be taken?

D. TEACHER'S EXAMINATIONS

1. NEW-TYPE EXAMINATIONS

At an informal gathering of educators the discussion touched upon the matter of teachers' examinations.

"Did you ever stop to think of the enormous number of examinations which are given each year?" asked one. "I never did until the other day and then the situation appalled me. The number runs up into the hundreds of millions each year. And then think of what a large share of those exams are like. Questions beginning with "discuss," "compare," "explain," and so on; papers marked by tired teachers who come to hate the sight of examinations and who have never had any training in the principles of objective measurement; and then the results used to determine which pupils shall pass and which shall fail. The matter becomes serious."

"I never have stopped to face the matter either," said another. "We sort of take examinations for granted. They are

the inevitable accompaniment of our system. I suppose there has been some progress since Starch revealed the true unreliability of examinations, but not much. The new type tests are much talked about, but as used by the average teacher, how much improvement do they bring? Most of such tests are of the true-false type, with too few items, and most of those hastily prepared and ambiguous. What's the way out?"

"I wish I knew," replied the first speaker. "I think as we reform our curriculum and turn it into more of an integrated whole, there will be much less need for the usual teacher's examinations. Standardized tests which can be self-administered and self-scored will be widely used. In the meantime I suppose the thing to do is to educate the teachers so that they can make better examinations."

Questions

1. Do you think these speakers are taking too pessimistic a view of the problem? What has been your experience with examinations?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the different types of objective examinations? How can really good examinations of this type be prepared?
3. In scoring essay examinations, themes, and compositions, what rules are there for making the scoring more reliable?
4. Given intelligent trained teachers making the best possible use of suggestions about examinations, what can one expect in the way of reliability and validity?

2. GOOD TESTS

Miss Ambrose was plainly discouraged.

"I think I shall go back to using essay examinations again," she said. "The true-false tests that I make up seem quite good, but when the class discusses them after the examination period, many of the items prove to be ambiguous and useless. I save time in scoring, of course, but I lose it all in making up a test. It seems to take an endless amount of time to get

enough items to keep a class busy for a period. After all, there is nothing like the old essay examinations to bring out a pupil's real ability. I know several pupils who always make top scores on the true-false examinations but they do not have any ability when it comes to applying their information."

Questions

1. What has been your experience with different types of tests? What experimental evidence is there in regard to the advantages and disadvantages of each type of test?
2. How could Miss Ambrose overcome the difficulty of ambiguity? What are the essentials of a good test item?
3. Could you make any suggestions for gradually decreasing the time required for the preparation of tests?
4. When essay-type examinations are used, what suggestions are there for their construction and scoring?

E. MARKS AND MARKING SYSTEMS

1. AN OUTSIDER

John Simmons is entering Fairfax Elementary School from Stimson, a town in a neighboring State. He has a transcript of his record as follows:

4 A

Grammar	82	
Writing	79	
Reading	85	
Arithmetic	87	
Geography	85	
Spelling	80	
Deportment	90	
Absent	5	half days
Tardy	2	

Promoted to 5B Grade.
Passing grade is 70.

Questions

1. In what grade should John be put? How does he compare with students in Fairfax?
2. Of how much use are the above data? Are there any data that might have been sent with the record which would have been useful?
3. What steps are necessary for a school system to be able to provide really adequate data?
4. What criticisms do you have upon the above data? What are the causes of the difficulties? Are the record systems with which you are acquainted any better than these?

2. HOW TEACHERS MAKE UP THEIR MARKS

A principal was talking with a seventh grade boy who had a series of low marks on his record card. The boy explained, "The reason I got a low mark in history was that the teacher had it in for me. He made a mistake one day at the very beginning of the course, and I remembered just looking it up in the book and so I told him he was wrong. Ever after that he had it in for me, and so he gave me a low mark. The trouble with the mathematics is that everybody got a low mark. The teacher said that he never had such a poor class. He didn't mark anybody excellent. Then in spelling I did good enough, but the teacher said I hadn't improved enough. I always get good marks in spelling, and I can spell without working better than lots of the fellows can who study. I know I didn't study, but I didn't need to. I don't think she should mark me down just because I didn't study if I didn't need to."

Questions

1. What part in the marks placed upon school work is played by each of the following factors:
   (a) The pupil's actual achievement as it would be recorded by standard tests.

(b) The teacher's arbitrary opinion of what constitutes good or poor work.
(c) Comparison of the pupil with those in the same class.
(d) Comparison of this class with classes of previous years.
(e) Comparison between the work which the pupil does and the intelligence which the pupil has.
(f) Comparison between the work which the pupil does at the end of the term with the sort of work he could do at the beginning.
(g) The pupil's effort, attention, study, etc.
(h) The pupil's honesty, dependability, cordiality, and winsomeness.
(i) The influence of parents, the sort of fuss which they make when marks are poor; pressure from other school officials.
(j) The probable effect which the mark will have upon the pupil's future endeavors.

2. How much weight do you think can justifiably be given to each of these factors?
3. Which ones can be included in the subject mark and which should be reported separately? Is it dishonest to mark a person low in French because, although his knowledge of French is excellent, he is dishonest in examination?
4. What evidence is there of the reliability of ratings upon character traits? How valuable is a teacher's mark upon coöperation or trustworthiness?
5. What mechanisms of emotional adjustment are illustrated by the boy's protests?

3. VALEDICTORIAN

Freeman High School has an enrollment of over 1000 pupils and offers such a wide selection of courses that in some cases there is but little overlapping between the programs of certain students. This fact has resulted in the sharp criticism of the

present system of awarding scholastic prizes. Several persons have claimed that there are such large differences between the percentages of A's, B's, etc., given by different teachers that students cannot be fairly compared on the basis of unweighted averages. At the last commencement Esther Nelson, who had taken the Latin course, had the highest average of 94.87, while Eric Smith, in the general course, had an average of 94.35. The Latin teachers had the reputation of being very easy markers and many people felt that Eric really should have had the honor.

Questions

1. Do teachers differ markedly from one another in distribution of marks? What evidence is available on this point? How are such differences justified?
2. What factors would have to be considered in trying to equate teachers' marks? Can a mark in science ever be compared with one in mathematics?
3. Is it desirable to try to make distinctions like the one above between 94.87 and 94.35? What advantages result? Are there any undesirable consequences?

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III. GENERAL METHOD

1. CAN SCHOOL BE INTERESTING?

A newly established experimental school for boys in Hamburg went upon the principle that the children themselves might determine just what they felt it wise to do. The teachers were to be present only as helpers of the children and never as authorities exercising coercion. For the first few days after the opening of the school the children, having been accustomed to formal school procedure, went to regular classes. They soon discovered, however, that nothing happened to them in case they did not attend. At first a few and then more and more left the school room entirely and spent the day in playing ball on the playground. Soon no one came to classes. The teachers said nothing. This continued day after day until finally two weeks had passed. Then came a rainy day. Boys hung around the house unhappy. They were still prejudiced against the teachers as persons who were likely to be uninteresting, but they finally turned to the matron, who was not quite a teacher, and asked her if she could think of anything that it might be fun to do. She laid hold of a passing teacher, whose specialty happened to be geography. This teacher suggested that they might make a flour and salt map of some country. The boys were interested and went at it with a will. Not all of them could do this, so the others wanted something to do. A chart showing where all their food came from was suggested. They took yesterday's menu and began work. Other groups demanded special projects. Soon the whole school was doing geography and nothing but geography. The ball games were apparently forgotten. The teachers had to sit up nights in order to keep up with the demands of the pupils. These interests led to others, including most of the

range of subject matter ordinarily taught. Ball games continued from time to time but the boys never again tried to spend whole days doing nothing but playing.

Questions

1. Compare the learning which went on in the boys with that which would have occurred had the teachers insisted on stopping the ball games and beginning class work. Were the differences in attitude worth the two weeks' time, judging by what is ordinarily learned in two weeks in a more traditional school? What is the evidence?
2. Is doing something useless really more satisfactory than working? In so far as it is true, is it a matter of original nature or of training?
3. How might a generation be educated to find enjoyment primarily in useful activity?
4. When a school is run on such a basis, how does the teacher get from one project to the next? What is the difference between a syllabus of topics arranged in logical order and the expression, "one enterprise grew out of the preceding one"?
5. How far would the concomitant learnings in such a school provide desirable training for citizenship in a democracy? At what points would they be undesirable?

2. VANISHING TEACHERS

A visitor to an experimental school found a classroom in which there was no teacher. The children sat at their tables busily at work. Some were reading material and writing out questions. Others were working arithmetic problems. The visitor made an investigation.

"How do you arrange it so that these children work by themselves?" she asked.

The principal explained. "They are carrying out practice exercises in silent reading and in arithmetical processes. The lesson sheet on which they're working tells them just what to

do next. This provides a way in which the children can check up their own answers after having finished. At regular periods survey tests are turned in and are scored by the teacher, so that every child's progress may be graphed." The principal here pointed to a chart which showed the progress of each child in a series of operations in arithmetic and reading. "Interestingly enough," said the principal, "we find that the children make better progress without any teacher at all. What occurs in the development of these skills is energetic, well-directed practice upon carefully selected materials. These materials include, in arithmetic, for example, the best arrangement of number combinations. None are overworked, none are slighted. The directions are clearer than most teachers would give. Every child can keep busy all the time. He doesn't need to wait for the rest of the class. Moreover, he's not driven in such a way that he has to pass by things without really learning them."

The visitor was impressed. "This is very interesting," she said. "I wonder if some day we can do away with teachers entirely, when we get all of our teaching methods worked over into materials like this."

The principal smiled. "Not in my generation, I guess."

Questions

1. Compare such a recitation with an oral class drill upon problems proposed by the teacher. What advantages would be likely to adhere in each method, from the standpoint of efficient learning?
2. What is the relation of a teacher to the learning process through which a child passes? In how far could that relationship be filled by a carefully written Test-Teach-Test procedure?
3. Suppose you were responsible for supervising progress in arithmetic. How would you make use of the weekly survey tests given to each of the children? How much of the material you would need could be printed in standard form?

4. How much of the attention of each child is likely to be fixed upon the graph of his progress and the credit check marks which he receives? Under what circumstances would this be undesirable? How might the situation be improved?

3. BEGINNINGS

Miss Sully is a new teacher in the Sparta Junior High School. One of her jobs is to teach general science to the eighth grade. The community in which the school is located has about thirty thousand people. There is considerable manufacturing of various kinds.

As the course has never been offered before, Miss Sully has the job of picking out the textbook. The problem, however, that troubles her most as she gets nearer and nearer the time for school to begin, is just how she should begin. "What would be the best thing for me to do the first day?" she thinks. "Shall I assign the first chapter in the book? Shall I try to tell about some interesting scientific things I know, or should I ask the children to tell me some of the things they know about?" She thought of some of the sayings that she remembered from her educational course about proceeding from the known to the unknown, and from the simple to the complex. Somehow, she had never thought of them in terms of specific situations before.

Questions

1. Put down the classes you remember as being interesting to a high degree. What made them so? Were there ever shifts in degree of interestingness during a course? If so, what factors seemed to be related to such shifts? Do you feel that there is a high positive correlation between the interest and the value of courses?
2. How can Miss Sully find the interests of the group? Is it wise to try to find the interests of an eighth grade class, or does that smack of "soft" pedagogy? Would it be better to start right in and drive ahead, hoping to arouse interest later on?

3. Supposing that she did find something that half the class were interested in, and the other half were interested in something else, what should she do then?
4. Supposing the group got very much interested in some particular subject to which she had assigned one week's time on her schedule, and at the end of the week they were very anxious to go on, how much more time should she allow them?
5. Supposing it were near the end of the semester and she still had five or six important topics to cover, should she stop the former project so that they could go on to these other topics?
6. Supposing that only a few people in the class were very interested in these topics, but she was sure that they were things that they ought to know about, what should she do?

4. PROJECT APPROACH

After one of the sessions of a state teachers' convention, several teachers were discussing the value in a project approach.

"I am getting away from the old type of teaching just as fast as I can," said one of them. "I find that the project method gives a new value to all my teaching. It's interesting and exciting instead of being drudgery. Don't you think so?"

"Well, no, I don't," said another. "It doesn't seem to me that children ought to be allowed to do as they please. They can't after they grow up, and I don't see why they should in school."

The third teacher tried to clarify the matter. "Oh, but in projects children don't do as they please. I use the project method in most of my classes. I suggest projects to the children and then hold them strictly to getting them done. Sometimes I choose very hard ones. I find, though, that all these stories about projects in magazines are greatly exaggerated, if my children are anything like the rest of the world. I don't find them doing any great amount of thinking for themselves. I

have to be a little more artful in getting them to work than I did under the old method, but they do just as little as they can get away with, anyhow."

Questions

1. Were these teachers using the term "project" with the same meaning attached? What different connotations do you recognize?
2. In what other senses is the word "project" sometimes used?
3. What determines the meaning that the term "project" will have for any individual?
4. What determines the meaning which any word has? How does a child acquire a meaning for "salad," "naughty," "Jewish," "ten"? (See case 6, Chap. I.)
5. There is a familiar story of three blind men trying to describe an elephant. One of them insisted that it was like a wall, one that it was like the trunk of a tree, and the third that it was like a rope. What bearing does this experience have on the growth of meanings?
6. What is the best method of procedure to clear up a difficulty such as the one which had arisen over the term "project"? What is the relative value of definitions and illustrations in clarifying meaning ?
7. How much validity, from a psychological point of view, is there in each of the observations presented by the teachers in the discussion?

5. APPLICATION

A course in elementary calculus for engineering students at the state university was divided into two sections, one of them taught by Professor M—— and the other taught by Professor S——. Professor S—— started his class at the beginning of the textbook and conducted the class in the customary way, following the textbook as fast as the students were able. Professor M—— said nothing at all about a textbook at first,

but gave his class a number of engineering problems which they were to work out in any way that they could. Some of them were solved by algebra, some by analytical geometry, some by trial and error. After several weeks of this sort of procedure, M—— took these same problems which the students had solved with difficulty and showed them how simple the solution was when the calculus was used. The class was just starting in the textbook when the other class was already several weeks along, but in a short time it had caught up with the other and was soon far ahead.

Questions

1. In your own experience what have been the effective methods of developing interest in a task? Could any of them have been applied to this situation?
2. What part does the personality of the teacher play in the development of interest? Is it true that there are some people who can make anything interesting and that there are others who make everything dull and uninteresting? If persons of this latter sort do exist, can they be improved by training?
3. Supposing that Professor M——'s class had only done the same amount of work at the end of the semester as Professor S——'s, would there be any difference between the two groups?

6. WHAT IS "GOOD"?

"I have some little books of biography, written in an interesting way, and some books of fiction in my school library. It is very seldom the biographical stories are taken by choice. How can I maneuver to make the children really prefer these?"

. . . . .

A teacher of general science in Junior high school was trying to stimulate interest in books on science. He found that the library had a number of reference books, and when he checked up on the use of these, he found some of them were widely

used while others had been scarcely touched. He found in his classes that some of the children were doing practically all of their outside reading in the field of science, a few others were taking books out but seemed to have little idea of what was in them, while certain others evidently had handled no other book than their textbook.

. . . . .

"While it is probably true that no one will enjoy doing a thing merely because he is told that he *ought* to, yet is it not true that certain appreciations which are worth while need to be learned but when learned are felt to be of more value than certain other more facile appreciations? One of the justifications of the so-called 'cultural' subjects would be that they help to a worthy use of leisure time. They help to give people the enjoyment (real!) of reading a good book and seeing a good play, whereas otherwise they might merely follow the line of least resistance and indulge entirely in a diet of cheap movies."

. . . . .

"Is there not a fallacy in trying to find out what interests and abilities are, and adapting the curriculum to them? It has been my experience that people *can* be interested, and abilities developed owing to the ability of the teacher. Therefore, should not *teachers be trained* in judgment of the best possible curriculum which can be found to exist (or create one) and proceed to interest and train the child, using that curriculum?"

Questions

1. What will influence a pupil's attitude toward a book which the teacher has just recommended?
2. What justification is there for asking a child to study for purposes of enjoyment and appreciation something which he does not enjoy or appreciate?
3. Is it possible that if the teacher required students to read books but selected required books carefully that the students who read unwillingly at first would later come to read of their own volition?

4. What is the difference psychologically between good literature and cheap literature, between good music and cheap music? Suppose an individual prefers what is ordinarily called cheap. Is there any reason why he should change his interests? Should he change his practice if his preferences remain unaltered?
5. Comparing the standards of different nations and civilizations, is there any general agreement upon what constitutes most enjoyable forms of music and art?
6. What is the effect upon a person who really enjoys most the type of art which is second rate, but who, because it serves to obtain social approval, tries to convince himself and others that he really cares most for the material which is supposed to be good?
7. How can the teacher determine which books are desirable for his group? How much of the total time allotted to the subject is he warranted in using for readings outside the textbook?

7. ASSIGNMENTS

Miss Higgins is a teacher of geometry in the Mendota High School. She finds in checking up on her class with standardized tests after about four weeks that the achievement is not satisfactory. The principal, after visiting the class at her request, suggests that perhaps her method of assignment is at fault. She has been taking the last few minutes of the period to assign work for the next day, and very often when the class has been busy in the midst of a problem, the assignment has consisted merely of a statement that "To-morrow we will take the next theorem."

. . . . .

A paper presented before an educational group contained this statement:

"Assignments in the Junior high school must be very specific because the pupils have not yet had enough practice in getting

the most out of books without some one to point out to them what is authentic and valuable."

Questions

1. What do pupils learn from specific assignments that they would not learn from an endeavor to find material by themselves?
2. What do pupils learn by hunting up material that they would not learn from specific assignments?
3. In terms of the laws of learning, what is the purpose of the assignment? About what proportion of the period does this warrant?
4. How should the teacher go about it to make an effective assignment? Could an assignment be too clear? About what proportion of the time should the teacher talk while she is making the assignment?
5. Is it better to intermingle the assignment of new work with the discussion of the problem of the day rather than leaving it all till the end of the period? Why?
6. What is your appraisal of the speaker's point of view in the second case?

8. TEXTS OR REFERENCES

A superintendent was interviewing a prospective high school teacher. "What texts have you used in the science work which you have previously been teaching?" he asked.

The teacher explained. "I've given up using textbooks. It seems to me that the scientific-mindedness which I am trying to develop doesn't come from learning facts in textbooks. I have my pupils read the more popular scientific magazines and bring clippings from newspapers. We have gone out and visited a cheese factory, a dye factory, and an electric light plant. We have studied the practical science which we found in our own ventilating plant, heating systems, electric bells, food preparation, window construction, and so on."

The superintendent was a bit troubled. "That's all right, but it seems to me to be a bit sensational and superficial. Do you find that you can get an adequate mastery of material without the careful selection and logical arrangement which the textbook affords?"

The teacher replied, "Of course, we use books whenever we are up against a problem upon which we have different opinions and upon which we haven't really adequate information. Committees study reference books and make reports. We use books only when we feel that they have something to contribute. Then, too, the pupils work out their own outline when they get to the end of the course. That gives them a logical arrangement in so far as they find it necessary to create it."

The superintendent later decided not to employ this particular teacher. He felt that the teacher was placing too much confidence in the children and in herself, and not showing a reasonable respect for the high scholarship and careful study which went into the organization of textbooks. He had an impression that this might extend to radical points of view in other matters than simply the selection and use of textbooks.

Questions

1. Where in your experience apart from school have books been most helpful? Where have they been of little value?
2. Using Dewey's analysis of the thinking process, at what point would the experience stored in books be relevant? If a textbook was used, would the material be likely to fit into the experience of the learner in this way?
3. What would pupils practice in using a textbook that they would not be likely to practice in the type of educational process which the teacher described?
4. Consider the transfer which is supposed to take place to the situations the pupils will face during the rest of life. Which method of teaching would provide for the largest amount of carry-over? Why?
5. Was the superintendent justified in his assumption that a

person who is radical in one line of thought is apt to be radical in other lines? What evidence is available?

9. DEVICES

The following devices are among those suggested by teachers for improving their work:

Device for Making Drill Work Interesting and Holding Attention in a Latin or Foreign Language Class

This method was used in all four years of a high school Latin course and was very successful as a drill lesson each year. The teacher had a card game corresponding to the game of "Authors" with Latin verbs of all conjugations on them. When the player calls for the card he needs to make a book from another player, he must give the principal parts of the verb correctly before he gets the card. Another set of cards might have nouns to be declined on them and even though the player named the card called for, the information must be perfect before the holder lets the card go.

The students enjoy this method and forget about the drill work which they inevitably receive.

Device for Securing the Correct Mood

An English teacher frequently has her class repeat in unison some appropriate verse or selection at the opening of the hour, to get the pupils in the right mood for the work to be considered. This device also serves as a review on memory passages, and makes the pupils desirous of learning others, as she sometimes repeated passages not all would know, then allowed them to copy them for future use. One of her favorites for a gloomy day was that cheerful one from Chaucer: "The bisy larke, messenger of day," etc.

Device for Remembering Order of French and Indian Wars

In those days they used wagons as means of transportation. The wars correspond thus:

w—King William's War
a—Queen Anne's War
g—King George's War
one is left and it is last—King Philip's War.

Device for Securing Good Discipline

Teacher has a beautifully dressed doll which any offender is required to carry downstairs as the lines pass out for recess or dismissal. The disgrace accompanying this penalty makes would-be offenders reconsider their actions.

Device for Encouraging Pupil Summarizing

A high school teacher placed on a table by the door a pile of half sheets of paper and as each pupil entered he took one. While the attendance was being taken each student wrote a concise theme-sentence on the last day's work. The slips were left on the table as the pupils passed out. This plan enabled the student to see clearly his *retention of the work* and showed the teacher the work needed for review emphasis.

For Encouraging Efficient Use of the Dictionary

Arrange as many chairs as there are pupils in a circle or a semicircle with a table at the center. Place a paper file in the center of the table. Give each pupil a dictionary and 5 slips of paper. Each pupil must write his name on each slip. Have prepared 5 good questions the answers of which can be found in the dictionary. "Is 'already' one word or two words?" "What is the sound of *a* in machine?" (As many questions and corresponding slips may be used as there is time for.) The teacher says, "I shall give the question clearly. When I am sure all understand, I shall say 'Go.' At that time, open your book. Write two things on the slip of paper: the answer, and the page on which the answer is found. As soon as you have done this, place the slip on the file on the desk." When all slips have been placed on file, remove them and number the top slip one; the next two; etc. Then read Question 2, etc. The total scores are counted. The highest score wins. A much more

complicated contest of this order may be given a group of teachers. This simpler method could be used to advantage in the grades and high school.

Device for Encouraging Pupil Activity

Let all children prepare questions in *history class*. The leader attempts to "catch" other members of the class on some point in the lesson.

Device for Memorizing

One student always learned *poems, in foreign language work,* by setting them to a tune; if they did not fit a tune, he made one that they would fit.

Questions

1. At what points would a better understanding of educational psychology lead one to abandon or radically alter the methods which are here advocated?
2. What factors for commendation can you find?
3. In training teachers, what should be the relation of such concrete suggestions to the teaching of principles of psychology? Is it possible for a normal school student to learn a concrete psychological principle in one class and a psychologically unsound device in another class, never making any connection between the two? Is this probable? Is it inevitable?

10. A CIPHER

ZXK7VLR3OBXA5QEFP
Above is given a cipher.

Questions

1. Try to figure out what it means, meanwhile keeping careful note of the steps of your process. What do you do first? What next?
2. What information might you use to help you?

3. At what point in your process would that information be of most value?
4. What kind of person would be most effective in solving such a problem?
5. What is the relationship of information to thinking?

(The answer to this cipher will be found in the Appendix.)

11. CONFERENCES

The committee in charge of the all-university Student Conference was making plans for the coming series of meetings, an annual affair of considerable importance in which campus problems were brought up. It had started five years before as a series of addresses by prominent faculty members on subjects chosen by a faculty committee. Later outside speakers had been brought in and the committee in charge had been enlarged to include an equal representation from the student body. Last year in an effort to increase the effectiveness of the meetings, it had been announced that there would be discussion after each speech, but the plan had not been successful. Remarks from the floor had been limited to a small number of persons and much of what took place was irrelevant.

As the result of a series of questionnaires and interviews the committee had the following suggestions:

1. To go back to a series of lectures, getting the very best speakers possible, speakers who would have an appeal to college students.
2. To have a regular series of addresses and then organize discussion groups about the campus after the conference.
3. To choose one problem for the whole conference; have speakers open up the problem by talks on the first day; then organize the students into discussion groups; and the last evening have one or two men sum up the conference.
4. To do as outlined in number 3 except that the introductory talks instead of being given are to be mimeographed and distributed among students a week before the con-

ference opening. Discussion groups would then start the first day.

5. To have no conference at all but to get prominent authorities who might have been selected as speakers to write out their best thoughts. Then use the money appropriated for the conference for getting the speeches and any other useful information printed and give each student a copy.

Questions

1. What are the relative merits of each plan? What changes take place in a group as a result of a series of lectures? Why? What changes take place as a result of discussion groups?
2. How many persons should be in a discussion group? How should they be chosen?
3. Who should be the discussion leader? What should be his qualifications? Do you think there would be enough capable persons at hand to run the necessary number of discussion groups? Should the leaders meet beforehand?
4. Why is it so hard to get effective discussion? Is it worth striving for?
5. Should the method of running the conference affect the choice of the topic? Is it wise to try to center all efforts on one topic?

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IV. AMONG CURRICULA

1. LIFE AND THE CURRICULUM

The teachers' meeting had started with a discussion of the problem raised by Jerry. Jerry was in the seventh grade, and hated school. His father was a rather well-to-do lumber dealer in the community, and Jerry, the only son, was planning to go into the lumber business. His father had not had much education, but felt that education was probably a good thing. Jerry couldn't see it at all. In this particular meeting Jerry's teacher was inclined to agree with him.

"Really, Mr. X——," she said, addressing the superintendent, "I don't see what Jerry is getting out of the curriculum that we make him study. He is a well-behaved, likeable fellow except when he is made to study arithmetic problems which seem to have no connection with his real interests. Wouldn't he grow more if we sent him down to work and let him go to the moving picture shows, listen to the radio, read the newspapers, and educate himself at his work?"

At this point another teacher suggested that it wasn't a problem for Jerry alone. "The question is, why run a school at all? We used to be able to defend what we were doing because it trained the mind and sent persons out with their intellectual tools sharp and ready for action. Psychologists tell us that that's all a mistake. What do we really expect our youngsters to get out of all the things we make them do, and that they don't want to do?"

Other matters were pressing for consideration at this meeting, so the superintendent appointed a committee to investigate the situation. They were to find out particularly how much useless material was retained in the curriculum for Junior High School.

Questions

1. Should Jerry leave school? Why or why not?
2. Was the teacher right in saying that psychology had disproved, in general, mental training? What makes you think so?
3. What are some of the techniques by which people have tried to build up a curriculum which should not contain useless material? Evaluate each.
4. Is the matter of reconstructing the curriculum one which the teacher should be asked to work at, or is it primarily a matter for expert decision? What should be the function of a group of average teachers with reference to the material they are supposed to teach? Defend your answer in terms of what you know about human nature.

2. WHAT'S THE USE?

"I can solve a quadratic equation, but I cannot keep my bank balance straight.

"I can name the kings of England since the War of the Roses, but I do not know the qualifications of the candidates in the coming election.

"I know the economic theories of Malthus and Adam Smith, but I cannot live within my income.

"I can explain the principles of hydraulics, but I cannot fix a leak in the kitchen faucet.

"I have studied the psychology of James and Titchener, but I cannot control my own temper."

—From the *Journal of the N. E. A.*

. . . . .

From a letter written by a European student after six months in the United States:

"If I am not mistaken, the aim of the curriculum from the progressive point of view in America is to fit children for their social environment, to make them useful members of the community. It seems to me that the aim should be not merely

this, but also developing a richer personality, of a kind that would not only fit the environment, but *change* it. I am wondering whether in developing this type of personality (and I am thinking now of the children above the average, of the promising minority) the utilitarian type of curriculum is the most adequate. There are two points which do not seem quite clear to me in the modern attitude.

"*1.* The value in itself of knowledge, which is not practically useful in a given situation. In order to have a wider outlook, a deeper and more intelligent judgment, we need a knowledge of at least certain fields infinitely greater than the one recommended by the 'practical usefulness' theory. I do not know how to define it, but when I think of certain men of fine old-European culture, which certainly does not stand the test of practical usefulness, they have qualities of judgement and appreciation, of adaptability, which it seems to me are not given by the most progressive systems of education based on the principle of social usefulness. It is all the more striking if one thinks of the poor method and waste involved in old-fashioned culture.

"*2.* The value of learning the process of really deep research. This applies more to the college curricula. Would it not happen that in thinking primarily of social usefulness and not admitting the value of any knowledge in itself, we would be tempted to be satisfied with a very superficial knowledge? In comparing the methods of work in the German Universities and here, it seems to me as if this tendency to apply immediately, to get results, leads us to be satisfied with rather superficial results, and we did not get enough training in the method of research."

. . . . .

"Assuming that the average college graduate has studied many things that will be of no use to him in future life, is it safe to argue that a person without a college education, who learns from actual experience, will be better fitted to meet the needs of life than the college graduate? From a psycho-

logical standpoint would the self-made man be considered better educated than the college graduate?

"It has been suggested that arithmetic would be made more vital by elimination of problems in measurement, paper hanging, carpeting, etc. This change might be justified inasmuch as a person would call in a carpenter or paper hanger to do the work. The question arises then, who is going to be the carpenter or paper hanger? How is it possible to tell how many students in a class this material will benefit? Do students or teachers know, especially in elementary grades, to whom this material will be of some use? How is it possible to draw the line between those that may need this sort of work and those that won't?"

Ain't Education Grand?

"In college days, I studied Greek and Latin composition,
Three modern languages I speak which is some acquisition,
In calculus I was a star, in history a whiz.
In economics I stood high, I led in every quiz.
At chemistry, psychology, zoology and art,
Philosophy and English, too, I worked with all my heart.
Not any subject in the course did I omit to try.

"I took my bachelor degree; I earned an M.A., too—
And Then I married Johnny Lee. Now this is what I do:
At six A.M. pile out of bed, put on the coffee pot,
Fry ham and eggs and toast the bread—he likes it piping hot,
Watch John take out the little car, and pulling wide the throttle,
Speed blithely down the street to work, then fix the baby's bottle,
Wash up the dishes, feed the cat and scrub the kitchen floor,
Make beds and dust and meanwhile talk to agents at the door.

"I call the grocer, butcher too, who bring my orders—maybe,
And while I wait for them to come, I have to bathe the baby;

And after that there's lunch to get, take baby to the park;
Some clothes to iron, pie to bake—by then it's getting dark.
I fry some chops, I slice some bread and quickly set the table;
When dinner's done I sneak to bed as soon as I am able.
Then round my bed I seem to see my college credits stand,
Derisive ghosts that grin at me. Ain't education grand?"

—Jean Gillespie.

Questions

1. Would curricula based upon job analysis provide adequate education?
2. How much of the curriculum in education to-day rests at bottom upon a misconception of the transfer of training?
3. How can one discover educational "needs"?

3. NOW OR NEVER?

At a Parent-Teacher meeting several mothers had gathered together in a corner and were chatting together while tea was being served. The matter of the children's piano lessons was being discussed. One mother told how much trouble she had to get her boy to practice. She was sending him to one of the best teachers in town, a teacher who insisted on one and a half hours of practice every day. Jimmy simply would not do this practicing unless his mother stood over him with a stick. Paul's mother said, "Why don't you let him drop it? He won't get anything out of it. Some day when he realizes how much value there is in piano playing, he can take it up himself. It won't take any more time for him to learn it then than it will now, probably less if he is interested."

Jimmy's mother sighed. "I wish I could think so, but I fear that he never will learn unless he learns now. We all find ourselves too busy to learn the things we'd like to learn after we grow up."

Another interested mother suggested, "Yes, and it's so fine to have him learn while he is young. When he gets older he can never really acquire the skill. His finger muscles can't adjust themselves."

In a certain Sunday-school great emphasis is laid upon memory work. Prizes are given for memorizing certain Psalms and New Testament chapters. It is recognized that the children don't always understand what they learn, but it is felt that when they grow up, they will be glad that they learned these materials. When the practice was questioned by a teacher from another school, the superintendent explained it as good psychology. "Ages seven to twelve are the golden period of memory," he said. "Later, people's reasoning powers develop and more attention can be given to discussion and working out of problems. During this childhood period, however, the mind should be well stocked with the rich store of the world's finest thoughts. These will then be the basis for later reasoning."

Questions

1. What difference exists between various age levels in ability to memorize? Is this the same for memorizing as for piano playing?
2. What things are likely to be learned beside matter which occupies the center of attention?
3. How much difference does interest make in ability to learn?
4. Are there special age levels for reasoning?
5. Would principles memorized as were these Bible passages, be likely to function on later problems? Why, or why not?
6. At what things are children remarkably more efficient than adults? Is childhood well spent if devoted to these pursuits?

4. LITERARYISM

The following is a quotation from an article in a prominent business man's magazine:

"Our whole school system is 'literary' crazy to rake all minds, regardless of fitness, capacity, or aptitude, into the 'literary bin,' and grind them out into standardized 'definitions' in the everyday, ordinary mental equipment. The public

schools are piling preëmptorily more and more textbooks upon the children, from the first grade pupils to the colleges, and requiring more and more years to learn them. A vast amount of this no ordinary brain can digest and retain. No primary mind can learn it, and no adolescent can master it. The little child in the first grade is assigned five readers the first day at school, and cannot carry them to school. The parent has to do it for him or hire someone. An adolescent in body and in years is assigned fourteen books in the seventh grade—it is impossible for the pupils to learn them and they do not. Every year this literaryism piles up more books to be studied and more years upon the student to cover them—more and more years lost to the student inside school walls, years from the practical self-determination and initiative required to make a livelihood in the outer world—and somebody must bear this burden while it is going on. Why is this? Simply because our entire system of schools is anti-American."

Questions

1. Is the above a fair statement of present conditions? What evidence do you have?
2. How does the efficiency of the modern school compare with that of a generation ago? What evidence is there?
3. Supposing you were Superintendent of Schools, and the statement came out in the local newspaper, or in an address by a local clubwoman, what would you do about it? Why?
4. Do you think it's true that we use too many textbooks in our present school system? What is the purpose of textbooks?
5. What is the relation of books to experiencing? Is it true that the curriculum must begin and end as a "way of behaving"?

5. LATIN FOR WHOM?

The children in the eighth grade of the Madison Elementary Schools are given a card on which they indicate their choice of

subjects for high school. These cards are taken home and must be signed by the parents and returned before the child is allowed to register for any particular program. Ruth, whose I. Q. is 93, comes back with a signed card indicating that she wants to take the Latin course.

Questions

1. Should she be refused permission to take Latin? Suppose she and her parents insisted, should she be allowed to take it? Supposing that she were allowed to take the course she chose and at the end of the first month she showed failing work in Latin, what would you do?
2. What are the principles which determine which pupils shall take a given subject or what subjects a given pupil shall take?

6. ANALOGIES

In the week-day religious lessons for one quarter, in a series once published by one of the large church denominations in this country, there are the following suggestions:

"Make a wastepaper basket of cardboard, covered with cretonne or wall paper. Watch magazines and advertisements for novel ideas in baskets. Into these we are to throw all our impure English and bad habits that we may thus live cleaner, purer lives.

"The following experiment is simple but convincing. Take a glass of water, pure. Drop into the glass a very little ink. Immediately the water is discolored. So is the life made impure by careless habits and thoughtless choice of companions.

"Have a dish of several apples. Look at each one. All are perfect except one, which has a small spot only. That is placed in the center. Put these away and examine them at the next meeting. All will be spotted if they come in contact with the center apple.

"This is about Saint Valentine's Day. Can we not make a heart-shaped book and on the outside cover place Jesus knocking at the door?

"If convenient the girls may be taught to make bread. Give a recipe for bread. Bake during the period some biscuits which can be prepared and baked in a short time. Thus may leavening be taught, both for the gospel of Christ and the growth of false beliefs and doctrines.

"This miracle needed faith. Faith is needed in every materialistic miracle also, as aeroplane, telephone, victrola, etc. When we lift the ear-phone of the telephone do we not know we shall hear a voice at the other end of the wire? When there is no sound we say the phone is dead. So when we fail to have faith in the power of the Creator of all things, our power is dead.

"In the center of the board place a lighthouse showing the waves dashing high and a rock-bound coast. Show the light shining by lines of orange and red. At one corner of the board draw a small night candle. This is not intended to light a room but to give service when medicines are needed. Purchase cheap tin candle holders. Teach pupils how to paint them. Candle shades may be made, etc., etc. . . . How can we shine as: A little sick-room candle? A night or guest candle? A home light? A street light? A lighthouse? Choose which you will be for one week and SHINE!"

—*Religious Education,* December, 1924, pp. 385 ff.

Questions

1. Will the most vivid impression in such experiences come from a concrete illustration or an abstract meaning? Why?
2. At what mental age are children able to see the similarity in a series of nouns like "rose," "tree," and "potato"? Is it more or less difficult than the abstract resemblance which children are expected to find in the suggested incidents?
3. Under what conditions is an analogy effective?
4. What are the dangers of an analogy, granted that it is understood?
5. What better suggestions could you give to accomplish the same ends?

7. HIGHER EDUCATION

"I believe that we do far too little towards establishing fundamental viewpoints. We get so excited over deciding whether to take lemon or cream in our tea that we forget to inquire whether we want any tea at all.

"I think of an educated man as one who has acquired a philosophy of life and a technique of living. Evidently the process of education is lifelong. That indicates, speaking in terms of mechanics, that the important thing to give students is proper direction and velocity. The actual ground covered in college is relatively unimportant.

"Simple organisms respond to external stimuli in a manner fitting for their preservation. We humans must learn to respond to complex situations, physical, intellectual, emotional. Perhaps we can conceive the important features of this response, of the technique of living, to be three: First, is the technique of determining the facts in the situation; second, that of forming an unbiased judgment and a decision as to proper action; third, that of carrying out the action.

"It seems to me that this course of procedure, simple as it is, may well be kept in mind. For in it lies the essence of successful performance, whether in designing machines, raising cabbages, writing dramas, or painting pictures.

"Determining the facts; making the decision; acting on it—so obvious a procedure that you are wondering at my childishness in writing it down. But don't we all overlook the obvious a large part of the time? How many people really follow that procedure? Isn't it the failure of man to do so which leads to statements that the cure for this, that or the other ill of society lies in education?

"A university training should make the average graduate markedly superior to the average man, in this technique of living. He should know how to find and use sources of information; how to analyze a problem into its important factors, bringing to this task an unselfishness, a judicial attitude, which is characteristic of real scientific inquiry, and a ma-

turity of mind formed in part by an acquaintance with the best thought of the world, and in part by his own experience in making mistakes, ample opportunity for which should be provided in any real training.

"Your questions are very specific and I've started off on generalities, but I feel that this general viewpoint answers some of the questions and throws a light on the relative importance of some others. As to what should be studied in preparation for this or that final activity, I feel vastly more concerned over the 'how' than I do over the 'what'. I think that by and large universities to-day try to teach too much and don't devote enough attention to how it is done. We all seem to be afraid that our students may die before we have a chance to tell them all we think we know about our subjects.

"So, to too great a degree, the students take notes and recite; the instructor codifies and arranges and presents the information. Under such a system the instructor gets most of the benefit. Shaw says in 'Back to Methuselah,' 'It is said that, if you wash a cat, it will never again wash itself. Therefore, if you want to see a cat clean, you throw a bucket of mud over it, when it will take extraordinary pains to lick the mud off, and finally be cleaner than before.'

"However little inclined we may be to adopt such a procedure, educationally, we may well believe that a cat would never again wash itself, if we washed it, during four years, sixteen hours each week, exclusive of military drill and physical education.

"We must not forget that the vital thing is to stimulate the intellectual curiosity of the students and to inspire them to personal effort. If there are dull classrooms in this institution either the instructors or the subjects or both should be dropped.

"There is pretty general agreement that training for intelligence rather than imparting of information should be the primary aim of university work. Our treatment of educational methods in universities reminds me, however, of Mark Twain's observation that everyone talks about the weather but no-

body seems to do anything about it. If I am getting away from our questions, it is because I feel very strongly that the most important problem before us is the vitalization and "deimpersonalization" of classroom activity, of faculty-student relationships both in and out of the classroom.

"I am speaking, of course, of the average, the average classroom, the average student. One hears many pessimistic opinions regarding the state of education of the average college graduate. I believe the trouble lies almost all in the 'how' and relatively little in the 'what' of the college course, although too early specialization is, of course, unfortunate. Breadth at the beginning for strength, tapered to the cutting edge of a specialty at the end, seems the ideal. Really adequate advice and assistance to students individually is most necessary, for what is best for one is not best for another. The experience and opinions of alumni on these matters should be most useful.

"In regard to the questions you raise on limitation in attendance, I doubt if the State will ever abandon the principle of furnishing the opportunity for a university training for all who are reasonably qualified. It is not easy to determine at the outset of the college course which student will be most benefited. Many youngsters are slow in developing, have a real struggle to stay in for a year or two, but find themselves after a while and profit immensely by their work. I confess to a lot of sympathy for the slow learners. Some of that type turn out to be our strongest men. I think the answer is in differential treatment. We are doing some of that now and I think we should do far more. The exceptionally able students can best be treated by methods which would swamp many others, who are still worthy of college training." (From a letter by an alumnus of a large university.)

Questions

1. Are the statements based on sound psychological evidence? Which ones would you question?
2. What specific suggestions can you offer toward the accomplishment of the changes called for?

3. What are the psychological determinants of success in college? In life?

8. OBJECTIVES

The Bureau of Curriculum Research set forth the following aim or objectives for Junior high school mathematics:

a. To complete the work begun in the lower grades, of giving pupils a satisfactory command of the arithmetic skills and facts needed to
   (*1*) Satisfy immediate needs
   (*2*) Satisfy assured future needs

b. To give instruction and training in the applications of arithmetic skills and facts useful to the average citizen.

c. To discover, if possible, interests and aptitudes in arithmetic, or their lack, as a basis for more intelligently guiding pupils in choosing further school and life work (i. e., to present in terms appropriate to pupils of the junior high school age a typical cross section of the various phases of higher mathematics and its applications.)

d. Mental training—training in "functional thinking."

e. Mathematical knowledge as an end in itself—to give pupils command of mathematical facts and mathematical processes.

f. Social efficiency, which involves
   (*1*) Ability to collect and understand the facts needed in solving daily problems.
   (*2*) Ability to evaluate facts.
   (*3*) Ability to select the right facts from among others.
   (*4*) Ability to properly relate facts.

g. Value of knowledge found in its application—to give a closer contact with life and society by the use of material in itself useful. Vital economic problems.

h. Development of attitudes, appreciations—e. g., thrift, appreciation of beauty in the geometric forms of nature, art, industry, etc.

i. To furnish and increase the incentive for studying mathematics for the love of the subject and the appreciation of its beauty and power, thus providing a way for the worthy use of leisure time.

j. To study and analyze the cases of those who must leave school early and to provide for them the kind of vocational experience and guidance that will help them to find their places in life.

k. To provide a well-rounded cultural program.

l. To provide gradual and more certain transition from elementary to secondary education.

Questions

1. Which of these objectives are based upon questionable psychological assumptions?
2. Which two or three would you consider most important? Indicate for each one the kind of experiences which children would have to have in order to carry out such an object.
3. Which seems to you to be the most difficult one to achieve? In the endeavor to achieve this one, what errors would a person be likely to avoid if he had an adequate psychological training? What sort of procedure would he be most likely to follow?

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See also chapters on transfer of training in textbooks.

V. SPECIAL METHODS

A. PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN

1. SHALL WE START A NURSERY SCHOOL?

A group of mothers, about half of them college graduates, in a middle-class suburban community contemplate starting a nursery school. Discussion of the project brings out, among others, the following points of view:

a. Children 2-4 years of age are better off with other children in a nursery school than in the average fairly good home.

b. Mothers who carry on a career while children are cared for in such institutions, usually come to regret their negligence.

c. The techniques and equipment for running a satisfactory nursery school are beyond the possibilities of such a group.

d. The mothers might profitably take turns, a day at a time, helping to run such a school.

e. The children should be out of doors as much as weather permits.

f. Nursery schools overstimulate young children.

Questions

1. Which of their observations are supported by existing evidence? Which are questioned?
2. Which seem to you, on the basis of observation, probably true ?
3. What other facts should be taken into account?
4. On the whole, would it seem more advisable to start the

school, or to keep the children at home until kindergarten age?

2. TOWARD INDEPENDENCE

James was five years old, thin, pale, and nervous. Aunt and grandmother brought him to school and came after him every day. They felt they could not trust him on the street alone, although there were no busy crossings. They feared he would dash in front of an auto. One day as the aunt carried him down the steps from the school the teacher said to her, "Aren't you making it hard for James? You do everything for him. Couldn't you help him by allowing him to do things for himself, thus developing independent habits?" The aunt gave one deadly look and said, "It's none of your business. Moreover, you don't know what you're talking about."

Questions

1. What things is it reasonable to expect a five-year-old to do by himself?
2. How might the teacher have been more effective in handling this situation?

3. INSTEAD OF KINDERGARTEN?

It has been suggested that schools could render a better service to developing children if they substituted a home-guidance plan for an institution like the kindergarten. The home guidance plan involves a consultation center and home visitors. In the consultation center the child receives a physical, mental, and social examination. The consultant talks with the mother. Plans for diet, playthings, playmates, and the general activity of the child and parents are discussed. At the request of any parents, a home visitor may come to spend several days in the home observing relations of father and mother, siblings, and all the patterns of response which affect the child. The visitor makes a report, emphasizing some of

these in their bearing on the child's attitudes. Under the visitor's guidance plans are set up for improving the home influence. It has been suggested that by some such plan children would be more permanently helped than they are in present kindergartens.

Questions

1. What might be accomplished in such a plan that would be missed in the present kindergarten? Illustrate with cases, real or hypothetical.
2. What might be accomplished in the present kindergarten that could hardly be as well done by such a plan? Illustrate with cases.
3. What sort of integration will conserve the best features of each? Is it workable?

B. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

1. IMPROVEMENT IN READING

Miss Martin is the supervisor in reading for the elementary grades. The superintendent has given her extreme freedom in instituting any changes she may feel are needed. She has her Master's degree in education; the teachers are all normal school graduates. When she starts the work, she finds that nobody knows how different classes compare with one another and with classes in other cities. The children who do not get along very well are kept after school and given more work. Considerable attention is paid to oral reading up to the fourth grade. The readers were selected ten years ago. The teachers in the elementary school have, with one or two exceptions, been in the school for five or more years, and are considered excellent teachers. Several of them are inclined to express contempt for so-called newfangled ideas.

Questions

1. How can Miss Martin get objective data on the situation?
2. How should she have reading taught to beginners?

3. When should reading be begun?
4. How can she best institute new ideas?

2. STORY-HOUR

A certain third grade teacher felt that her pupils were not getting the most out of their reading. They were mastering the mechanics of reading and were above the average of third-year classes in speed and comprehension but they were not learning to read little books and stories for themselves or to develop an interest and love for books. So she decided to institute a story-hour club. All the children were invited to become members, but it was made a rule that no child should be allowed to attend the story-hour unless he had something himself to contribute when called upon. The several very poor readers were encouraged to select simple books or stories and to prepare carefully for the story hour.

Every Friday, instead of the more formal reading period, the children brought books and stories from the classroom library or from home and read or told the parts that seemed most interesting to them. In this way, there developed gradually a widespread interest in books and stories of all kinds, and the teacher felt that her plan had been a success.

Questions

1. Do you think that this teacher could have justified her story-hour plan from the point of view of educational psychology? Why or why not?
2. On the whole, do you think the story hour club should be continued as it was, or would you suggest some modification of the plan? Why?

3. FEELING NUMBERS

A teacher has a beginning class in arithmetic. She has devised a system of blocks with holes in them. Some of the blocks have one hole, some two, some three, and some four.

The holes are large enough so that the children can put their fingers in them. To teach the child what three is, he is given a block with three holes and he puts his fingers into the holes. He feels "three." In order to teach him seven, he can be given two blocks, a four and a three, or two three's and a one, or three two's and a one, etc. The teacher was very sure that the fact that the pupils could feel the number was a distinct advantage.

Questions

1. What suggestions does psychology have for helping children acquire generalizations? Do you think this block idea outlined above is desirable?
2. Is it ever desirable to form a habit which later is to be broken?
3. At what mental age can children be given concepts of numbers?

4. DIAGNOSIS

The eighth grade arithmetic class used its time reviewing the material which the pupils had learned in the previous grades. The teacher found that there was a serious weakness in many of the fundamental processes. Children could recite the multiplication table but they made mistakes when they came to using it in operation. A good many of the pupils seemed to fall down on the same sort of problem. The teacher laid the situation before the supervisor, both for the purpose of getting help on the present class and also to call her attention to the necessity of changes in the lower grades so as to avoid the difficulty in the future.

Questions

1. How might the teacher find out specifically the difficulties of the class? Is it wise to do this, or could she rest assured that if she gives a sufficient number of varied examples and warns them that they cannot be promoted to high school until they can do these correctly, their difficulties will be cleared up?

2. How can the supervisor locate the cause of the present difficulty?
3. How can she discover how much practice on the various processes the children get during their stay in elementary school and how this practice is distributed?
4. If a child learns that 7 plus 4 make 11, can he be expected to know 17 plus 4, or 57 plus 4? Does position make any difference?

5. TEACHING THE SECOND R.

Miss Newell, a first grade teacher in Hamilton School, was talking with a group of other teachers prior to the opening of school in September. "I have discovered a grand device for teaching writing," she said. "Writing has always been one of my problems, and now I think I have a way of reducing the waste time, so that the children should be able to write excellently within a very short time. Instead of letting them struggle to control their wavering lines, I am going to make some grooves in heavy cardboard, the grooves being small and capital letters. The children will spend their time writing in these grooves. If they practice this a while they will have the motions necessary for making excellent letters, and then we won't need the grooves any more." The other teachers thought this was an excellent idea. "It is very much like using water wings in swimming," said one of the others. "I remember I never could swim. I tried and tried without success until finally somebody had me use water wings, and I learned in two weeks."

Questions

1. What do children learn when they write in grooves?
2. Of what value are other similar ideas for teaching writing, such as having the children form the letters in the air in unison with the teacher, or have them trace sandpaper letters with their finger?
3. In the case of the second teacher, what was the function of the water wings?

6. SPELLING

The teachers of the Washington School were discussing the problem of spelling. "Spelling is one of the most important things in the curriculum," said one, "and yet I can't get my pupils to show any interest in it. A few good students seem to like it very much, but the rest of them detest it."

"I don't blame them myself," said another. "I never could spell. I failed every spelling test in Freshman English at college and took make-up exams twice a year for two and one-half years before I finally passed one. I think spelling ability is inherited. If you haven't got it, it's no use trying to spend much time learning it. You can't do it."

"I don't believe that's true," said a third teacher. "Years ago everybody was a good speller. Now practically no one is. The younger generation isn't interested in thoroughness as children of forty years ago were. Spelling takes drill, but it can be done."

"Drill in spelling lists of words may help in spelling bees, but it doesn't do much good in helping children to spell correctly when they write themes, letters, and the like," suggested a fourth. "I think our usual spelling lessons are faulty. We should teach children to learn to spell through their reading and writing. That's what psychology would tell us."

Questions

1. Should children be allowed to spell only to a degree of accuracy which will insure their being correctly understood? What objection is there to allowing a child to continue to spell "receive" "recieve"? Do children spell less well than children of several years ago?
2. Was the teacher correct in assuming that there is a special spelling ability which is inherited? How does achievement in spelling tend to correlate with intelligence and achievement in other subjects?
3. Was the fourth teacher right in saying that the principles of psychology pointed to the desirability of learning spell-

ing through reading? What principle did she have in mind? What other facts are relevant at this point?

4. How can spelling be more interesting?

7. THE ARTS

A student recently observed the following situation in an elementary class in drawing:

The class was busy drawing various sorts of curved and straight lines. The teacher had drawn samples on the board and the pupils copied these until the teacher was satisfied that sufficient proficiency had been achieved. The teacher explained to the visitor that later the students would be given objects of various sorts to copy. She called her method the "logical" system.

In another class the pupils were working at a variety of objects. Each child was painting his own subject, giving it his own interpretation. Many of the paintings did not have any meaning for the uninterested visitor. The teacher endeavored to avoid influencing the children's work as long as they were satisfied. Only when a child reached an impasse did the teacher enter in.

Questions

1. What sort of learnings were going on in each class?
2. What is the function of the arts in relation to the development of the individual? How can progress in this line be measured?

C. SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. SOPHOMORES AND POETRY

Miss Green is teaching Sophomore English. Part of the course of study is "Sohrab and Rustum." The class has been in session for several weeks and so far has been studying rules of punctuation and grammar.

Questions

1. How can she lead up to the study of the poem? Should she tell them beforehand that they are going to study it and suggest that they be looking it over, or should she come into class some day and read part of it?
2. What is the purpose of teaching a poem like this one to Sophomores? What do they actually get out of it?
3. What is "appreciation"? Can it be developed?
4. Supposing the teacher didn't like the poem, what would happen?
5. A couple of boys in the back of the room announce that the poem is dry and they wish the class would do something that is more fun. What could she do to interest them?
6. After she has finished teaching the poem, how can she tell whether she has succeeded in developing appreciation?
7. What is the relationship of analysis of sentence structure and choice of words to the study of the poem?

2. APPRECIATION

The English class had been assigned to do "Julius Cæsar" one morning. The class was expected to read from Act I before they came to class, but many of them did not. They mispronounced words that they could have pronounced if they had read it before they came to class. Many of them just read words. The meaning was not clear to them so they could not make it clear to the audience. Some of the pupils did not bring their books. They had to look on with others and that caused comment and confusion. The supervisor suggested that the best way to "make" pupils do anything was to frame the procedure so that if they don't do it, they will have cut themselves off from some interesting class performance in which they will earnestly wish they had a part. The next time some of the members came without their books the teacher sent them to the back of the room and told them to study their

other lessons. Since, however, she was busy with the rest of the class and could not supervise them, they spent most of their time drawing pictures which they held up for the members in front to see.

Questions

1. Suggest several methods for meeting such a situation. Appraise each, giving reasons. How could the supervisor's suggestion be improved?

3. MATHEMATICS

Martha had expected to graduate from high school in June but graduation exercises found her elsewhere. She had failed to pass her Algebra and as this was a course required for a diploma, she was unable to graduate. She had failed Algebra I (first semester) once and had done no better the second time but had been passed. In Algebra II she had failed twice and had had a tutor during her Senior year, but still had not been able to pass a satisfactory examination. Her other work had been good. Algebra was the only subject in which she had failed.

Questions

1. Does algebra require a different sort of ability or abilities than history or foreign language? Explain.
2. Many students seem to have a very strong dislike for mathematics and say that they never can understand it. What is the basis for this?
3. Does algebra or geometry have any special value in training students to think? What evidence do you have?
4. Can algebra and geometry be taught so as to be valuable to students who are not going on into engineering or advanced mathematics?
5. What makes a subject interesting to pupils?
6. What justification is there for refusing a diploma to a student because of failing in one subject?

4. THE EFFECT OF SCIENCE TEACHING

The following is a quotation from the Annual Report of the President of Columbia University for 1925:

"The essential fact in all scientific study is the use and the comprehension of the scientific method. Nothing is to be taken for granted and no test, whether quantitative or qualitative, is to be overlooked. Every conclusion as it is reached is held subject to the results of verification, modification or overthrow by later inquiry or by the discovery of new methods and processes of research.

"One would suppose that after a half century of this experience and this discipline the popular mind would bear some traces of the influence of scientific method, and that it would be guided by that method, at least in part, in reaching results and in formulating policies in social and political life. If there be any evidence of such an effect, it is certainly not easy to find. Passion, prejudice, partisanship, unreason still sway men, whether as individuals or in the mass, precisely as if scientific method had never been heard of. How is it possible that with all the enormous advances of science and with all its literally stupendous achievements it has produced such negligible results on the mass temperament and the mass mind? This is a question which may well give us pause, for something must be lacking if intelligent men and women, long brought into contact with scientific method and scientific processes, pay no attention whatever to these, and show no effect of their influence, when making their private or public judgments."

Questions

1. Do you think the above is a fair statement of present conditions?
2. How do you explain them? Has the difficulty been due to our methods of science teaching?
3. Should we expect students who take physics and chemistry, even under the best teachers, to be any different in

their attitude on such different matters as religion and politics?

4. Compare the possibilities for teaching a kind of scientific-mindedness which will transfer to current social problems, in (a) a zoölogy laboratory, and (b) a public speaking class.
5. To what extent can science teaching help to eliminate the following errors?

INTELLECTUAL IMMORALITIES

1. Carelessness in observation, "sloppy work."
2. Inaccuracy in determining units to be counted in statistical research.
3. Slovenliness in logic, fantastic explanations.
4. Generalizing beyond one's data.
5. Confusing opinions with knowledge.
6. Confidence in the results of research in disregard of weakness in proof and verification.
7. Contentment with "discussion."
8. Poor judgment in research plan and procedure.
9. Wavering interest, flitting attention, attracted by peculiar superficialities.
10. Egotism allowed to crowd one to the invention of new theories for personal distinction.
11. Inventing interesting theories for the sake of selling them in books, articles, lecture, and conversation.
12. Pride allowed to result in persistent belief in a theory for which one has been given credit.
13. Formulating an hypothesis on weak bases of facts, and then becoming blind to facts in opposition.
14. Emotionalism during research; "I believe" instead of "I have proved."
15. Adjusting theories to popular likes and dislikes.
16. Opposition to proof of another's theories because of jealousy.
17. Opposition to a theory merely because of ignorance and stupidity; "I cannot see how."

18. Rushing into print with a report of research work that justifies no conclusion.
19. Degenerating into a propagandist of an unproved hypothesis, instead of being true to the research purpose of discovering the truth.
20. Cowardice in supporting a verified generalization because it is unpopular and conflicts with selfish interests.
21. Impatience, unwillingness to proceed step by step through a research.
22. Indulgence in dense verbiage for the sake of appearing superlearned.
23. Ignorance of the mechanism of instruments of precision, which results in their use out of order.
24. Popularizing tentative generalizations for the sake of personal publicity.
25. Resort to authorities, or to sarcasm and ridicule, against data, arguments, and verifications.

—*Character Education Institute.*

5. FOREIGN LANGUAGES

"I never use a word of English in my class after the first day," announced one French teacher, in telling of her methods. "I explain that every bit of talking is to be done in French, and if anyone talks in English, I pretend I cannot understand. That seems to me to be the natural way to learn a language. Children have to learn that way."

"My experience with such a method has been unsatisfactory," commented another teacher. "It is so wasteful. I can explain many things much more quickly by using English. Much of the conversation in my classes is in French, but I don't insist upon it. Children may have to learn that way, but the situation is different when a person is learning a second language."

"The use of English seems to be poor psychology," returned the first. "The pupil forms a bond of object—English-word—

French-word instead of the direct connection object—French-word which is the ultimate goal."

Questions

1. What has been your experience in learning a foreign language? How did you learn? How do you respond to words in a foreign language?
2. Do you feel the first teacher is making the correct psychological interpretation of the situation? Are the conditions different for speaking, translating foreign to English, translating English to foreign?
3. What other suggestions could psychology offer for the teaching of foreign languages?

6. THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Miss Hayes is teaching American history. The purpose that she has set up for the particular section of material she is dealing with at present is to get the class to appreciate the significance of the Civil War and the period immediately following for present-day conditions.

Questions

1. How would such a purpose influence the choice of material?
2. How would the principle of readiness influence the organization of material?
3. How should such an educational unit be measured?

D. HIGHER EDUCATION

1. ORIENTATION COURSES

Zenith University has had for several years an orientation course in which instructors from different departments in the university have given lectures which purported to give the student a general notion of each field. In general there were

two lectures and one quiz period per week. Some of the students were discussing the course.

"A sort of a vaudeville course," commented one. "We never got time to really find out anything. The one thing I remember is that each instructor said he couldn't really give us any idea in such a short time."

"It was interesting, though," said another. "Most every instructor was so anxious to make a good impression for his subject that he dragged out his best experiments and jokes. Some of the real courses must be rather dull after one has been in the Orientation course."

"Some of them certainly did pile on the work," groaned on a third. "Expected us to read a textbook in chemistry in 4 weeks."

"I think it really helped me," said another. "I didn't know anything about what people did in chemistry or biology or psychology. Now I think I'll be a chemist."

Questions

1. What reasons does psychology offer in favor of such a course?
2. How could it be taught to avoid students' criticisms given above?
3. What should be included in such a course? What kind of readings would be desirable to have for each part? Can there be any integration of the separate parts?
4. How should such a course be related to the rest of a student's program during his freshman year? During the rest of his college course?
5. Would it be better to give such a course in high school?
6. Instead of such a course would it be better to substitute a course in the Senior year which attempted to interpret each field in terms of life activities?

2. LITERACY

In a recent survey of a group of college freshmen it was found that a large percentage of them showed, even at the end

of their course, the grossest inability adequately to use the English language as a medium of written expression. Misspellings, wrong punctuation, errors in grammar were frequent. One third of the group did not seem capable even of recognizing the requisites of a complete sentence. Essays showed no power of organization and less inspiration. Logical thinking was rare.

Not all the work was of this sort, of course. Several of the students were capable of outstanding work. Some had ability equal to that of many writers appearing in print. But on the whole, the outlook was not encouraging.

Questions

1. How does one learn the elements necessary for good writing? Was this situation a commentary on English teaching in high school?
2. What opportunities will these students have which will require ability to express themselves? Is it worth while training for this or would the time be better spent in developing appreciation?
3. Do you imagine the students were aware of their poor ability in this respect? What are the satisfiers and annoyers in the usual English course?
4. The criticism mentions inspiration. What suggestions does psychology have for training this quality?

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VI. EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

1. ON THE GO!

Elizabeth had just been elected president of the Girls' Athletic Association. An interested teacher, Miss B——, met her and congratulated her. "That's just fine, Elizabeth," she said. "I think you're just the right person for that work. I wonder, though, if you aren't doing too much already. Don't you hold several other offices?"

Elizabeth spoke in pleased embarrassment. "I certainly don't know why they chose me. I do have too many things to do as it is. Let me see, I happen to be president of the Susan B. Anthony Debating Club, and I'm singing with the Glee Club, and I'm Activities Editor for the Annual this year and of course, there's basket-ball, and parties, and I'm teaching a Sunday-school class at the Methodist Church, and I hold one of the offices in the Young People's Society. All that with my studies keeps me so busy that I never seem to have a moment when I don't have two or three things to do, but I rather like it."

Miss B—— left, more than a little troubled. At the next faculty meeting she raised the question, "Ought we not to have some way of limiting the number of activities in which a student participates? I was talking to Elizabeth the other day and was just amazed at the number of responsibilities she is trying to carry. It is too much for her, and it isn't fair to the other students."

Questions

1. How valuable to Elizabeth will be the experience which she gets from her participation in such organizations? Suppose that her program of studies included English

composition, chemistry, American history, third year French, and advanced algebra. In the light of the seven cardinal points, which represent the things we are trying to achieve in secondary education, compare the learning which took place from her program of curricular and her program of extra-curricular activities.

2. Do you think it probable that Elizabeth's scholarship suffered because of this participation? What does investigation show as to the scholarship of those students who participate most in extra-curricular activities?
3. Does such a strenuous program ever lead to a breakdown? What leads people to engage in so strenuous a program? How far would that situation be remedied by a rule which would limit participation? Suppose Elizabeth's hyperactivity was rooted in a desire to escape from a conflict between home standards and those of her social group, what sort of administrative procedure would promise most help?

2. CENSORSHIP

Each year the senior class of the Milltown High School presented a class play. It had been very much their own affair, and they had chosen the play and assigned the parts themselves. The income from the play was used to buy a gift for the school. The new principal felt that it would be desirable if the play could not only be a self-determined good time for the class, but could be an expression of the best artistic standards. He suggested to the group that they try to present Josephine Preston Peabody's "The Piper." The senior committee read it over and compared it with some of the college comedies which they had previously considered. They were unanimously in favor of the college comedy. The superintendent was inclined to feel that their decision should be accepted, but that future classes should be educated to prefer the higher standard. He left it this way until he read over the play which the committee chose. It contained profanity, smok-

ing, cheap talk about love affairs, and one comedy drunkard. He then met the group and laid down the law.

He said, "I, as principal of this school, cannot permit you to produce anything of so low a character. I have a responsibility to your own moral development as well as to the reputation of the school. I'm not insisting that you produce the play I suggested, but I will not permit you to produce the one you have chosen. If you want to choose something else which will express the ideals which the Milltown High School is supposed to stand for, I will be glad to help you. Otherwise, there can be no play."

Many of the seniors agreed with him, but an indignation meeting of the leaders of the class followed this announcement. One speaker after another protested that there was nothing wrong in the play they had chosen, that it was their play, that they were doing the work on it, and that if they could not produce their play, they would have none at all. One enthusiastic boy proposed a general strike in which all seniors would refuse to come to classes until the principal gave them permission. The group as a whole, however, felt that they were too near graduation to take such a risk. It was finally decided to do nothing about it. No play was produced, and from then until the class graduated, the principal found them a very difficult group with whom to deal. They annoyed him whenever possible.

Questions

1. Did the action of the principal create an appreciation for higher ideals in the minds of the group?
2. How important is it for communities, particularly the younger children of communities, to be sheltered from such experiences as this play might present? Compare the effect of keeping them away from such an experience with the effect of taking them through it and helping them to evaluate it.
3. Is there some other way in which the principal could have achieved what he desired without arousing a class-

conscious antagonism? Upon what knowledge of psychology might he draw in this process?

4. What cultural patterns within the community would the principal have to bear in mind?

3. THE VALUE OF ATHLETICS

Watertown High School had won the district basketball championship held at the local normal school. They were to represent the district in the finals at the state university two weeks later. The day after they won the district championship the superintendent announced that he would refuse to allow them to go to the finals. He said they could not afford to lose more time from their studies. The boys threatened to strike. The local paper published a long editorial about the value of athletics. The writer stated that athletes make as high grades as non-athletes, and showed the great value of fair play and courage learned in athletics. The superintendent, however, refused to give in, and the team did not go to the finals.

Questions

1. Was the superintendent justified in his stand? Why?
2. How much truth was there in the statement of the local newspaper?
3. How can a school administrator determine the optimum amount of time to be devoted to extra-curricular activities?
4. Did the superintendent handle the situation wisely?

4. CAPTAIN SILVER

Charles, nine years of age, was paying no attention to the story the Sunday-school teacher was telling. The teacher had noticed his indifference for two or three Sundays. Also, the home work which usually had been ready each Sunday had been forgotten. To-day he had even forgotten to bring the lesson quarterly.

There wasn't any trouble about his conduct for he just sat still and looked off into space. The only nervousness apparent was his constant glances toward the clock which was behind him and necessitated his turning all the way around to see it. The fact was he was "too good," i.e., too free from his usual mischievousness.

The teacher decided to take the matter up with his mother. She found the mother a ready confidant for the change had been observed in the home too. "Charles used to read all the time and now he is out most of the time. I can scarcely get him home for meals," she said, "And he is so indifferent to everything and forgetful," she continued, "just yesterday he came home from school at recess thinking it was noon." The mother then said reluctantly: "The reason why I am sure there is something terribly wrong is the fact, as shown by his report card, that he was practically a failure in school last month."

And so it was revealed that this boy who had always been an "A" pupil, had brought home, out of a clear sky, a report with not a single "A," one "B" and mostly "C's" and "D's." Attention was marked way down. Both the mother and the Sunday-school teacher were baffled. They must look further. The quest naturally led to the school and there was found ample confirmation of their fears, for the teacher (a new one) had very little to commend in the boy. "He's a dreamer," she said, "and can't do the work." She recommended demoting him to the average group if not the "low." "He certainly had been placed wrongly in the rapid section," she said.

The case was taken to the principal by the heartsick and outraged mother and she (the principal) was plainly incredulous. "Why, Charles was one of our prize pupils last year," she said; "surely there is something wrong." By this time four different persons (viz. the church school teacher, his mother, his public school teacher, his principal) were interested in discovering the reason why the mischievous bright boy of a month ago had so apparently without cause turned into a dreaming dullard. But no solution was forthcoming.

It developed from the mother that the boy was stunned

when he saw his report card as though he were looking at something entirely new and not understandable. Little reports had drifted from time to time to the father's ears. These reports had little significance at the time but helped to explain a lot of things later on:—for example, Charles was found hobbling about the house with a broomstick tied to his leg with one foot drawn up at the back. The broomstick served as a good "peg leg" and made inroads on the waxed floors and, besides, the process of getting about seemed not only inconvenient, but plainly painful. When asked by his mother what on earth he was doing, he said lightly and with no further explanation, "I'm Captain Silver, he had to walk like this all the time." "Well, you'd better get at your home work," was the mother's reply and the matter was dropped only to be reported as new evidence that something strange had come over the boy.

On Sunday the lad was found among the trees in the back yard with an automobile headlight used for a head gear, busily engaged in bringing wild animals down from the trees with his bow and arrows. "Now," said the mother who had the father peeking from behind the window shade at the performance, "isn't that proof that he is unbalanced or something?" Then the Sunday-school teacher was called on the phone for further consultation and the next day report was made to the school of the "peg leg" and "archery" incidents.

A week passed. Try as she would, the mother could not keep track of the boy's whereabouts and he grew more and more preoccupied when made to stay around the house. Saturday came; the alarm went off at six and Charles with his older brother of 12 were up and dressed and out of the house before the parents realized it. But Indian Summer days did call loudly to the great outdoors and they only smiled and thought they understood. Little did they realize what was happening. The story did not come out for several days.

A gang of boys led by the nine-year-old Charles had built a "robbers' cave" in the woods near by. The reading of a book at the opening of the school year had been responsible—a seem-

ingly quite innocent book, "Treasure Island"—but it had inspired the reader to carry out a mighty interesting project—a project far more interesting for the time than Sunday-school, than day school even, and a project too compelling to bother about home restraints.

Pop-bottle tops had been collected by the gang, placed in the street car track to be flattened out and used as money for the treasure chest. There was complete secrecy required of the sharers in the project and all had gone well for more than a month. The hole in the rocks had been covered and filled up with offerings brought by the various members of the gang.

But trouble had come, threatening the leadership of this youthful "Captain Silver." He had brought in a new member —a little Italian boy, son of the town barber, who had led a precarious existence until championed by Charles. "Let in that Dago? Never!" said Nicky, the leader of the opposition. But he was brought in over his protest and after a fist fight for supremacy. He was never received by these boys, however, and there developed two factions in the camp. The climax came Friday when Nicky broadcasted the whereabouts of the robber cave as a measure of retaliation. With deliberation of purpose Charles had passed the word around to his faithful members and they had raided the cave early Saturday morning, razing the camp to the ground. "But," he added, as he told of it, "we only took our own stuff away."

The camp destroyed, Charles busied himself with further plans for revenge. He had written three notes and pinned them on the door of the rival gang leader's home. These notes tell the story of the making up.

"First Note—"My gang can lick your gang any time you want to fight."

Second note (with the picture of a football on the back of the paper)—"My gang can beat your gang playing football," and

Third note (answering the other's note accepting the challenge)—"All right for next Saturday. I promise not to fight if your gang plays fair."

And so "Captain Silver" and Treasure Island were forgotten. The grades for the next month were better and the following month back to normal. The Sunday-school teacher was able to capture his interest once again (at least between his renewed pranks), his teacher at school withdrew her recommendation for demotion and his parents were faced with other ever recurring signs of his activity. "Captain Silver" at least for the time being had given place to the "quarterback," on the football team.

Questions

1. What might have happened if the Sunday-school teacher had not taken the trouble to talk with the parent and the school teacher and principal?
2. If the teacher had known more about Charles's psychology could she have handled this case without coöperation of home and school?
3. If the cause for the lack of interest in church, home and school had been discovered before the "Captain Silver" project had run its course, should it have been nipped in the bud or were the educational possibilities in the project itself of enough value in the life of the boy to warrant a temporary dropping off of interest?
4. Suggest other non-school enterprises which might produce similar loss of interest in study? Which of these should be encouraged? Why?

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VII. CHARACTER TRAINING

1. MAKING PLANS

The superintendent of schools in Zenith had been in attendance at the National Education Association. He came home convinced that a school should do something more effective in character training. Most of the speakers had had some good word to say for the service which the school should render in preparing a better type of citizen. He appointed a committee of some interested teachers and principals, and met with them to outline a scheme for character training. One of the youngest of the principals suggested the need for a very definite period for training in ethics. He mentioned a textbook in which stories of the good and wise choices of great men were presented. He felt that if every class spent some time listening to such stories and perhaps dramatizing scenes which involved these fine ethical attitudes, it would surely have good effect upon the ideals of the pupils.

An older and more experienced teacher smiled indulgently. "I am afraid," she said, "that we will never change pupils' characters by talking to them. I remember very well one school system in which we had such a class. The very boy who could make the most apt remarks in the class discussion was a boy whose parents were ready to turn him over to a reform school."

The superintendent answered, "Of course, we might all find single instances on each side of such an issue. Our concern must be for what happens to the great group of children. Ought we not to have some great honor society or organization for which pupils may be chosen, not because of athletics or scholarship, but because of character?"

"The idea is good," said a principal, "but it seems to me impractical. We have no means of telling which pupils are worthy of membership in such a society."

At this point one of the teachers introduced the literature of an organization designed to promote just such a character-building plan. Each pupil was given a list of acts of service and helpfulness. As he did each, he checked it off. When he had finished the list he was given a new one. Pupils who had done so many of these good deeds were rewarded by promotions and badges.

A teacher who had been studying psychology approved heartily. "That's just what we ought to have. It provides for practice in good living in real life situations with satisfaction in the outcome. We aren't depending upon the hope that something practiced in school will transfer outside. This scheme means that pupils are practicing right living in their normal relationships."

The director of the Research Bureau had been trying to make his contribution. "That sort of scheme has been investigated. Pupils were given a large number of tests which permitted deception. Some of them involved cheating in school. Some of them involved getting credit for work which really had not been done. Some of them involved dishonesty in athletics or parlor games. When all the results were compiled together, it was found that the pupils who worked under such a system were more likely to cheat than were the average pupils of the school. They found, even, that the higher one went in the honors of the organization, the more likely one became to cheat."

The experienced teacher beamed her approval. "Just what I would have expected," she said. "All the time the pupils were practicing consideration for others, but getting credit for themselves, sometimes by fair means and sometimes by foul."

Miss H——, who teaches geometry with exceptional success, proposed a different plan. "Why not choose fundamental virtues, such as honesty, obedience, courage, good sportsmanship, sympathy, and so on. Then we could have some way of giving

special emphasis to each one. We might combine all the suggestions made thus far. We might have stories and dramatics and opportunities for expression in daily life. We might spend one month of the school year on each topic. It could be correlated with the class work. There could be English themes, and historical incidents brought out."

The superintendent shook his head doubtfully. "I understand that that sort of plan is open to very serious criticism. I don't remember all the points, but it seems to me that the main idea is that character is not made up of a mere sum of such traits, and that people don't become good by trying to acquire them."

The athletic coach felt that it was time for his point of view to be heard. "As far as I can see," he said, "we have the best chance for character making that the school system offers. We don't preach to the fellows about fair play, but if any of them get mixed up in dirty work, we haul them out of the game and, if necessary, suspend them. If fellows show a streak of yellow, they get jumped on by the rest of the crowd right then and there. We don't pick out any particular traits to develop, but we teach the fellows a good, hard game, not just by talking about it, but by showing them how to do it and giving them plenty of practice. They're building the sort of character that they can bank on throughout life."

The teacher who studied psychology shook her head. "I'm afraid you're assuming too much transfer of training. Your boys do take care of themselves during the training season, but as soon as that's over, they throw over their health habits in one grand spree. It hardly seems that we can expect their moral habits to transfer to life situations other than the games in which the habits were learned."

The coach nodded ruefully. "There's something in that, all right. I know fellows who would throw away a point if the umpire gave them an unearned score in a tennis match, but who would get away with anything they could in a football game."

Questions

1. What advantages and what disadvantages from the standpoint of the actual learning which takes place, would you expect to follow each of the systems of training mentioned in this discussion?
2. Are there any traits or virtues which are always and under all circumstances desirable?
3. What are the best rewards for goodness?
4. Is misconduct ever caused by conflicts in other and, perhaps, remote areas of children's living? Illustrate.
5. Outline the kind of character training which you would approve and justify it in terms of the laws of learning which you know.

2. CONCOMITANTS

Something had gotten into Henry. Henry was twelve years old and in the fifth grade. He apparently did not feel at all interested in working on the assignment for this study period. He was supposed to memorize the poem, "To a Waterfowl." Instead he drew pictures, tore up paper, talked to the boy behind him, left the room, played in the hall, and so on. The teacher was annoyed and told Henry that he would have to stay after school and learn the poem. Henry had planned to go down by the river after school, where some men were building a dam. He was very sullen, and the teacher had to stand over him to make him do the work. He did not finish until almost six o'clock.

Questions

1. What are some of the factors which might account for Henry's attitude during the study period?
2. What other things was Henry learning besides the poem? What connections were being formed with the teacher, the school, study, poems, authority?
3. Why did the teacher want him to learn the poem? Why

did she want him to study during the study period? Why did she think it best to keep him after school? Which of these purposes were really achieved by what happened?

4. What sort of situation would the teacher have to set up to achieve each of the objects which she was seeking?

3. PREACHING VERSUS PRACTICE

One of the finest girls' high schools in New York was meeting in assembly period to hear an address by a leading liberal minister. He spoke on ideals and the power which they exert in life. After dismissal one group of older girls went to a class in which a test was given. Some days later it was discovered that fully a third of the girls had cheated on this test, which was given under an honor system.

The teacher met the group and put the situation up to them. He asked what they thought was best to do about it, then left the room and left them to settle it among themselves. They talked it over very frankly. Some of them emphasized what all of them felt, that cheating for marks was not only dishonest, but tended to defeat the very purpose for which they came to high school. They asked the teacher to give them another test which they would take under an honor system, and on which they guaranteed that there would be no cheating. This he did.

Questions

1. What sort of mental connections were made as a result of the speech?
2. How much transfer may be expected from a speech on ideals to a cheating situation? Is this case typical? Why, or why not?
3. What sort of connections with the practice of cheating were formed as a result of the way in which the teacher handled this situation? How do these compare with connections which would have been formed had he sought to discover those who cheated and administer a punishment to them?

4. What is the relationship of stories, talks, and sermons to moral behavior?
5. What is the relationship of coercion to moral behavior?

4. NEW MORES

Helen had moved into a new community, and had just entered the second grade. The educational standards of the community from which she had come were somewhat higher, and she found herself able to do very easily the work of this new class. A few weeks after her arrival, a brief test was given to the members of the class. Charlotte, who sat behind Helen, was not certain how to proceed with one of the questions, so she whispered softly to Helen. Helen turned around and explained the procedure and the answer, and turned back to go on with her own work. The teacher came down and took away papers from both Helen and Charlotte. She said that the whole class was disgraced by having pupils who would be dishonest. Helen broke into tears. The teacher almost relented, but felt that it might be a good lesson for her. At home, Helen's mother tried vainly to explain why it was that helping another child who wanted some help was considered very wrong in this school.

Questions

1. What would have been the effect of a greater emphasis upon trustworthiness and upon helpfulness in Helen's character training?
2. What did Helen probably learn? Was this desirable?
3. What desirable and undesirable learning would you expect to find in a school in which every pupil was free to render any help within his power to any other pupil?
4. Is knowledge of right and wrong inherent? Where does it come from? How?
5. What suggestions can you give for handling such a situation in a more desirable way? What are the psychological elements involved?

5. IMMORAL EDUCATION

The following are statements given by two little girls, eight and ten years of age, in an interview with their parents. They have recently become pupils in a public school of good reputation, with a resident principal, a fine building, flower gardens, and spacious playgrounds. The school is just as well conducted and orderly as the average school, and is ranked above the average. To the visitor it looks attractive on the outside, and the classrooms all seem to be quiet and orderly. When one talks to the children, however, one sees that the external conditions are not indicative of the internal reality. The children who gave their experiences came recently from a school where there was freedom, democracy, sincerity, respect for the rights of others, coöperation, reasonableness, control by group approval, thoughtfulness of the happiness of others, love and respect for both teacher and principal, and a high degree of efficiency in teaching. The new experience covers a month of public school life and stands out in vivid contrast against the previous background. The children's statements are given practically verbatim.

"Daddy, the children in the class stick their tongues out at the teacher when she turns her back and leaves the room, and I feel like sticking my tongue out at her too."

"Why do you feel that way?" asked the surprised father.

"Well, she won't let us do anything. If I drop my pencil on the floor I have to wait until the teacher gets down under her desk for a book or something, then I pick my pencil up. If she saw me pick it up I would have to stand in the corner.

"We have to sit all day with our hands folded like that (shows hand folded in lap) and our feet together just so. If we do not sit in that way—if we put one foot over the other—the teacher come down the aisle and raps us with a stick. We have to sit like sticks.

"The girl behind me pulls my hair and I don't dare do anything, I just have to stand it.

"We cannot talk to each other or help each other. Yesterday

a girl came in who had been absent and she did not know what page we were reading on and had no paper, so I gave her some of my paper and showed her the page. The teacher scolded me and told me to stay in and write 'imaginary' one hundred times. The teacher has a list of the times you have to write 'imaginary' on the board. The second person who does anything has to write 'imaginary' one hundred and fifty times and the next one two hundred times."

"How do you spell imaginary, Sarah?"

"I-m-m-a-g-r-y."

"You were just trying to help a little girl who had been sick, were you not? Why don't you go and tell the principal about this, and explain the matter to him and ask him if he approves of it?"

"I am afraid to. The principal's office is the detention room. I did not know what the detention room was at first. The teacher talks about it every day, but, Daddy, she never sends anyone there. I found out it was the principal's office. I would not dare go there, I am afraid of him and could not tell him. But there are some things that he ought to know.

"This is one thing he ought to know! A colored boy named Richard only went and sharpened his pencil without permission and he has to stand in class all day long for a week. One day he sat down to do his work and now he has to stand two weeks."

"He has to stand all day long, day after day?"

"Yes, he has been standing all week; he never sits down.

"One day, in the beginning of the term, he was not paying attention and the teacher shouted at him this way—'You dirty, black, stupid simpleton, I am tired of you, I have had you too long and if you don't mind I will shake the life out of you, and I can do it too.' There are lots of children who do worse things than this, but she does not talk to them in that way. This boy really was not doing anything, but the teacher does not like colored boys and I don't think the other children in the class like them either. They write nasty notes to the colored children."

"You say she does not like colored boys?"

"No, and she does not like colored girls either. There is a colored girl who is quite big and she is awfully nice to us. She swings us on the swings and tells us stories outside but in the class she makes faces at the big boys. She makes faces all the time and sasses the teacher so that the teacher does not dare say much to her.

"You can't talk in that school. If the teacher sees you talking you have to write (imaginary) one hundred times or stand up in the corner, so the children write notes and pass them under the desks. They write notes all day long and when the teacher writes on the board they sneak the notes to each other.

"It is all so different from the school we used to go to. There you could behave natural. You did not have to put up your hand when you wanted to say something to the teacher.

"Once a little girl spilled ink on her dress and was afraid to get out of her seat so it ran all over her dress. I saw it, but last week I put my hand up and the teacher did not see me so I went up to her desk, and she made me stand in the corner. She said, 'Never come up like that unless I tell you!' I thought the teacher should know about the ink but I did not dare tell her.

"Then we can't go to the wash room. We all have to go at once and everything is in a hurry. There are so many children but they all have to leave the room at once. We can't go to the wash room before school opens because we are all locked out. No one is allowed in the building until the bell rings, then we have to get in line and go right to our classrooms. I can't get out of line.

"Once a new little girl came to the school. It was her first day, and she was sick and had to leave the room. She put up her hand and the teacher would not let her leave, then she put it up again and she could not leave. Afterwards, when the teacher was walking down the aisle looking at papers she found the little girl crying and she had to take her out and downstairs. Daddy, if that had been a new little girl in our

other school the teacher would have let her go and would have sent another little girl with her. She would not let her be disgraced. That is not the way to treat nice little girls, is it?

"There is a big boy who plays football in the High School next door. They call him 'Red.' He can do anything he pleases because he is a football hero. One day he hugged this big colored girl who is in my class, and she told him to stop. He did not stop and she slapped his face and then she ran home. But he ran after her and kicked at her. They fought, and she took out a razor and slashed his face and neck. All the teachers were out there but they could not stop them, and the two swore and swore awful—I never heard so much swearing. They said awful things. She said she would kill him. She was expelled and he went right back to school. I saw it all. He should not have hugged her in the first place and should not have chased her when she ran home. I think he was more to blame than she was, but they put her out. They are both back in school now.

"All week Red has been calling me 'Sarah dear.' I don't like to have that kind of boy say that to me. Red can do anything he pleases. He can chase little girls off the swings or he can fix the hooks so they come down. And he can make love to all the girls."

"Does the principal know all this?"

"I don't know, but he ought to.

"There is another thing I don't like about the school. The teacher does not tell you why you are wrong when you do your work. She just says, 'All wrong, correct it.' I feel funny when I don't know how to do things. Our other teacher used to show us how. That is what a teacher is for. That is the reason I have to get mother to help me understand my arithmetic, and when mother does it right and shows me, the teacher marks it wrong because I did not copy it all over again in a column when I added the whole numbers with the fractions. I added them separately and then put them together. mother said this was all right but the teacher marked me wrong when I got the right answer.

"I don't like this school. I have to sit quiet all day. I can't talk, can't move my feet, can't help anybody, have to sneak if I want to talk or pick anything up and I am afraid to say anything. I have not been used to putting my hand up when I speak and because I don't do that I get bad marks even though I know the lesson. I don't like the teacher and I do feel like sticking my tongue out at her just like the other children.

"I am glad I didn't, though, yesterday. The teacher made believe she was going out of the room and all the children started to yell and stick out their tongues, then she turned and saw them and they all had to stay in and write 'imaginary' one hundred times. I did not stay in because I have to go in the bus."

If a visitor should enter the classroom of these children he would, no doubt, find everything running smoothly and in order, but the conversation of the children given above shows what is actually going on in the minds of the children.

—*Religious Education*, Feb., 1927, p. 176.

Questions

1. Mention five specific stimulus-response connections which you would expect to operate in pupils who had been through such experiences. Are any of these desirable?
2. How would the learnings accruing in such an environment compare in effectiveness with those coming out of the school's endeavor to build character by stories in its assembly period?
3. Under what conditions are teachers likely to be sensitive to the character consequences of such classroom procedure? What is the psychology involved in enabling teachers to see for themselves the results of their work?
4. Would any kind of preliminary home training enable children to pass unscathed through such experiences? How should parents be advised to behave in such a situation? Why?
5. What do you think of Kingsley's suggestion, "Let not the

sour-faced teach morals, lest they create a distaste for virtue. Let the hale and cheerful ones do this"?

6. OUR CITIZENSHIP MAGAZINE

"We have a citizenship magazine which has several pages devoted to each of the following headings: Kindness, honesty, politeness, self-control, self-reliance, helpfulness. Under the proper heading the teacher writes the stories that the children relate daily, or perform in the schoolroom. She places the name of the contributor at the end of the story. All favorable comment and criticism by the teacher or anyone else who has any contact with the class goes into the magazine. It is kept in the "library" and may be read by the first one who finishes his assigned work.

"The following are samples of stories reported:

"Under page headed, 'Politeness':

" 'When my big sister said she was in ....'s room, using the last name of the teacher, I told her to say Miss ....'s room.'

—Mildred W."

—*Citizenship Through Character Development,* March, 1926, p. 11

Questions

1. What meaning for courtesy was developed out of the experience of this child?
2. What satisfaction were children expected to get out of their good deeds?
3. What do you think of the plan?

7. "THE LAW OF SELF-CONTROL"

"In a democracy we need leaders who are strong in positions of trust, steadfast in purpose, calm and controlled under all circumstances. He who can best control himself can best control situations, and can best lead others through difficulties and dangers. The follower who can best control himself is

the one who can become most coöperative with a wise and steady leader. Let us teach the young citizen to admire self-control, earnestly to desire to control his own impulses, and to learn to govern his actions by principle rather than by whim.

"*a.* Daily Directed Discussion

SUITABLE TOPICS

1. A story which brings forth admiration for self-control under great provocation. Illustration: 'How the Stands Stood,' by Marks.
2. Special need of controlling one's thoughts, one's tongue, and one's temper.
3. Strong, self-control qualifies one for superior membership in the family, the school, the neighborhood.
4. Self-control prevents offense to companions and bad example to those who are younger or weaker.
5. Self-control promotes peace-making rather than peace-breaking.
6. A suitable original pledge for self-control.
7. Means for preserving self-control in moments of provocation.
8. Helps which without offense might be given to friends in practicing self-control.

"*b.* Practice in Activities

1. Make a list of rules for self-control.
2. Practice self-control during a short period agreed upon and score personal successes.
3. Collect clippings and stories relating to self-control.
4. Make a scrapbook devoted to this virtue.
5. Learn poems or short memory gems that pupils themselves have discovered.
6. Conduct a story hour of children's contributions. Make definite preparation for this over an extended time.
7. Dramatize a few good stories."

—Course of Study for Grade VI, *Boston Public Schools, Document No. 10*

Questions

1. Which of the activities suggested do you think would contribute to self-control? Why?
2. Psychologically considered, what is self-control?
3. What is the relation of self-control to interest? What would this suggest as a method for its development?
4. Which of the suggestions manifest a psychological misapprehension of the development of such a character trait as self-control? What is this fundamental error?

8. HOW ARITHMETIC WAS USED AS AN INCENTIVE TO LOYALTY

"Problems and graphs enabled seventh-year pupils to discover what it would cost the city to supply the class with new textbooks. The average life of the different textbooks was obtained from the principal. The cost to the city per year to supply the textbooks used in one class was then determined. Problems and graphs were again employed to find how much money all the seventh grades could save the city each year if by unusual care of their books, they could lengthen the lives of those books by one year.

"This taught loyalty to the city through the exercise of self-control and thoughtfulness."

—*Citizenship Through Character Development,* January, 1926, p. 33.

Questions

1. What response would you expect a pupil to make the next time that he was careless in handling some school book? Why?
2. Does such training get at the root of the difficulty in carelessness?
3. Would you expect this training to have an influence on loyalty, self-control, and thoughtfulness in general? Mention one situation in which you are reasonably certain that

it would have some influence, and another involving the same "trait" in which you would not expect it to have any influence. Explain why.

9. *"TEACHING SUGGESTIONS FOR GRADE IV"*

The following suggestions were sent to public school teachers in Boston.

"*1.* Memorize quotations in which the 'law-word' (Health, Self-Control, Reliability, Fair Play, Duty, Good Workmanship, Good Teamwork, Kindness, Obedience, Loyalty) occurs.

Ask the children to bring in quotations fitted to the law being studied.

"*2.* Write slogans appropriate to the character law being stressed at a given time:

(*a*) Allow class to decide which are the best three or four.

(*b*) Place them on the board, changing them from week to week.

(*c*) Use a different color of crayon each week.

"*3.* Make posters for the classroom and corridors, containing appropriate suggestions bearing on the law being studied.

"*4.* Place a list of all the grade studies or activities on the board. Include also other activities, such as games, school or home gardening, running errands, and other work done in the home.

(*a*) Assign to each child a different study or activity.

(*b*) Ask him to write a short composition of not less than six or more than eight sentences, telling in what different ways the law being studied may be applied to that particular study or activity.

(*c*) Have the compositions read before the class.

(*d*) Give each child a piece of paper and ask him to write the names of the three children having the best compositions.

(*e*) Have the children who received the most votes write their compositions in a note-book to be kept in the

classroom for reference, and for the use of classes that come later.

"5. Make a cross-word puzzle using the "law-word" vertically and horizontally. Try to find words whose meaning is synonymous with that of the "law-word."

"6. Make sentences using the letters of "law-word" vertically as:

L ove is the key to loyalty.
O n our loyalty to truth depends our reliability.
Y ears of duty well done make a person truly loyal.
A ll good team-work depends on loyalty.
L essons well learned show a loyal pupil.
T he loyal friend never fails us.
Y ou show loyalty to parents by willing obedience.

Dramatization

"1. Get from the class a list of animals.
(Suggest that the children name those animals with whose habits they are familiar.)

(*a*) Assign to each child the animal he named, and ask him to imagine himself that animal. He is to write a conversation between the animal he represents and a very kind master or mistress. In this conversation he is to bring out the thought of the animal's appreciation of kind treatment.

(*b*) Have these dialogues read, and take the vote of the class as to the best one.

(*c*) Ask the author of the chosen dialogue to select one of his classmates to represent the master or mistress, and allow the two children to act out the dialogue before the class.

"2. Ask the class to imagine that a child who has disobeyed the Law of Health has become ill. Have the children write out a conversation between the child, the mother, and the doctor, bringing out the thought that the child's illness resulted from disobedience to a known Law of Health.

(*a*) Introduce characters impersonating the vegetables

and fruits, milk, cream, etc. Take care that each one shall remind the child of his special part in the daily diet, if a person wishes to remain well and strong.

(*b*) Conclude by a speech from the little sufferer showing that the child realizes the folly of disobedience and intends to be wiser next time.

(*c*) Allow the class to choose the best story written, and to dramatize it.

Motivated Work

"*1.* Place on the board a conduct thermometer. At the end of each hour have a child record the conduct temperature of the class, taking off ten degrees for each misdemeanor. At dismissal have a monitor report the average temperature, and record in a note-book. On Friday compare the week's average with the average of the previous week.

"*2.* A Thrift Activity.

Place a graph on the board which shall show from week to week the number of depositors and the amount deposited. Continually emphasize that it is not the amount that is important, but the habit of depositing something each week.

"*3.* A Letter-Writing Problem.

Have the children write to friends who are ill. If they are not acquainted with any sick person, ask them to write to any child who is a stranger to them who may be at the Children's Hospital. Address the letter to Dear little Mr. or Miss Somebody. Address the envelope to Secretary, Children's Hospital, Boston, Mass. Make the letters sound cheerful. Suggest that each row of children tell about the work in a different subject, so that the letters will not sound too much alike.

Select three or more children who are good at letter writing and allow them to read over the letters and choose the best one from each row. Have these letters corrected, copied, and mailed.

A similar plan may be followed in writing to a class in a distant city."

—*Citizenship Through Character Development,* June, 1926, p. 13.

Questions

1. Choose the two of the suggestions given above which you would be most ready to defend from a psychological point of view. Choose the two which you believe to have the least value. Give the reasons and evidence upon which your choices depend. Indicate the situations in the child's later living in which you would expect the training from your activities to transfer.

10. TRAIN UP THE CHILD IN THE WAY HE SHOULD GO

Theodore's parents had just sent him to a military school. They hoped it would straighten him out. He had been quite a puzzle to them in recent years. They didn't like the crowd with whom he associated. They felt that he was weak in will power. He was neglecting his appearance.

After two years in the military school, Theodore came home looking like a different boy. He was snappy and neat in appearance although he did have an attitude of rather insolent and arbitrary command in his relationship to other people. Theodore was given a position in the office force of a local factory. As time went on, his parents' hopes that he would rise rapidly in his position were not realized. He became more careless about his dress. He became associated with the same old gang. Rather early in his experience in the factory he was threatened with discharge because of the annoying way in which he dealt with the people who worked beneath him. The factory manager's main complaint, however, was that he showed no initiative, he seemed to have no push. He did what he was told and that was all.

Questions

1. How far do you believe that Theodore's difficulty was due to heredity? What evidence is there?
2. What factors in the situation in the military school caused a change in habits?
3. Would it be probable that Theodore would have developed more initiative in a different kind of school? Would another type of training have resulted in more permanent learning? Why?

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VIII. DELINQUENCY AND CRIME

1. NATURE OR NURTURE

The papers had been filled with an account of a particularly brutal crime. Conscientious parents were hiding the papers as soon as they came and vainly hoping that their children wouldn't see them elsewhere. On the same day, two editorials appeared, endeavoring to interpret the responsibility for such a disaster. One of them said, in part, "The responsibility falls directly upon the society which permitted the bringing into the world of a soul so tainted. The grandfather was a drunkard who deserted his family. The father of this criminal was himself a repeated offender. Twenty per cent of the time between age twenty and fifty, his father spent in prison. The parents may never have been married. The mother was illiterate, and perhaps should be classified as feeble-minded. Out of the union of such stock only one result need have been anticipated. Until society selects citizens before their birth, it cannot hope to avoid the duplication of such revolting offenses."

The other editorial laid emphasis upon the responsibility of society for the world in which this criminal had grown up. It called attention to the poorest row of tenements, to the gangs of the neighborhood, the poverty, alcohol, and crime which were the guardians of the fate of the child; showed how, at an early age convicted of minor offenses, the child had been sent to a reform school, and had come out harder, tougher, and a far less desirable citizen. "This dark stain is upon the hands of the community," it read. "We made this man what he became. No punishment which we can administer to him will wash our hands so long as the social environment which produced this criminal is molding the lives of uncounted boys and girls."

Questions

1. What evidence might the first editorial have quoted in support of its position?
2. What evidence is there in defense of the second point of view?
3. What undesirable aspects of modern life might we expect to remove by a suitable eugenic program?
4. If children continue to be born from the unselected stock of the population at large, what evils of society can be eliminated through processes of education and training?

2. HOPELESS

Early in the school year, Phillip, a boy ten years old, stole a bicycle from a fellow pupil and set out for a neighboring town. He was overtaken and brought back by the police and through the influence of the principal of the school, he was locked up in the city jail awaiting admittance to the reform school. But public opinion compelled his release and readmission to the school.

The principal insisted that the case was hopeless, pointing out that the child's heredity and home environment made reformation impossible. She adopted the plan of isolation. All Phillip's school activities were carried on apart from the rest of the school: he sat apart, played apart, and recited alone to the principal. This routine was followed throughout the fall and winter term but at the end of that time Phillip dropped out of school.

Questions

1. What undesirable bonds were formed?
2. What desirable bonds were formed?
3. What was the effect upon the emotional life of the child?
4. What was the effect upon others in the school?
5. What more desirable procedure can you suggest?

3. A RISING DELINQUENCY RATE

An analysis, in a large city, of one district in which the delinquency rate was very high showed the following facts.

The community was made up of an immigrant population, largely from Southern Europe. The tenements were crowded, poorly lighted, poorly ventilated. Economic status was low, and unemployment more or less chronic in many homes. Men worked in factories further out, or did menial jobs in the downtown streets and stores. Many gangs roamed the neighborhoods, each regarding certain streets as a special province. Gang fights occurred occasionally. The parents were often both at work, and children were neglected. Mortality rates were high. Groups of boys and girls were often in the street until late at night. Lurid movies, pool halls, and bootlegging joints were found in almost every other block. Truancy was common. The school had a strict and formal program. The principal had a reputation for rigid discipline. Pupils marched in line from street to class without turning around or whispering. The district had been carefully policed and many arrests made.

Still the community continued to have a bad reputation for petty thefts, assaults, and other misdemeanors. It was rumored that members of one gang were getting rich bootlegging, while another group was stealing cars.

Questions

1. Which of the above factors appear to have the most significance in producing delinquency? What evidence is there?
2. How, psychologically, do such important factors operate? Is it a learning problem?
3. What suggestions for reducing delinquency appear to you as most promising? Why? What psychology is involved in putting them into operation?

4. BAD GIRL

Clarice had gotten into trouble. She was 17 years old, had an I. Q. of 111, and was physically well developed and attractive. She lived with her mother, grandmother, and uncle. Her father had deserted the family shortly after she was born. The family had had a good deal of financial difficulty, but the mother had managed to make a living by her work as a saleslady. The hours were long, and Clarice had been left a good deal with her grandmother. The grandmother had been partially paralyzed for five years. The uncle traveled for a tobacco company, spending most of his time on the road.

In school Clarice had been well liked. She usually made grades near the middle of her class. She was very active and excitable. Once she had so lost her temper as to throw a book at her teacher. She was best at gym work, enjoyed games and played very well. Arithmetic bothered her, and she barely scraped through.

For two years Clarice had been running with a rather wild group of young people. Some of them were her classmates (she was a junior in high school)—others had left school. One young man had been expelled from school because of his low grades, lazy habits, and obscene talk. Clarice's mother had tried to keep Clarice away from this crowd and had introduced her to a club at the church. Clarice, however, claimed the church group was "slow," and soon dropped out. She and a girl friend occasionally went auto riding with some of the fellows.

Now she had confessed that she had not been as wise as she thought she was. In spite of the sophistication of her group, who believed themselves up to the minute on all matters, she was pregnant. Her uncle was terrifically excited, and wished to force an immediate marriage. The mother wept copiously, but seemed quite helpless. The principal called in the school nurse for conference.

Questions

1. What is the possibility that Clarice can still make a successful and happy life adjustment? What does the evidence show?
2. At what points does Clarice's case seem typical? At what points is her problem unlike that of the majority of sex delinquents?
3. How could the school have functioned to prevent this difficulty?

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IX. PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION

1. PROGRAMS

A principal in collaboration with his teachers is planning the program for the elementary school. A sample for one class is as follows:

9:00— 9:15 Opening Exercises
9:15— 9:45 Reading
9:45—10:15 Writing
10:15—10:30 Recess
10:30—11:00 Study
11:00—11:20 Spelling
11:20—11:45 Study

1:15— 1:50 Arithmetic
1:50— 2:15 Study
2:15— 2:45 Geography
2:45— 3:00 Recess
3:00— 3:30 Music or Drawing
3:30— 4:00 Study

Questions

1. Is the schedule too long? How much difference would you make for different grades?
2. What subjects should come early in the morning? Which ones late in the day? Why?
3. How does one determine how much time should be devoted to each of the subjects?
4. Should school begin earlier? Have a longer lunch period at noon? Close earlier or later? Why?
5. What learnings take place during the recess period? Are they important enough to warrant having trained persons

in charge of the children during recess? How should children be grouped at this time?

2. ORDER

Mr. Herring was a little bit late getting into his high school class the first day it met. He found the boys hurling chalk across the room, jumping over seats, and having a grand time generally. He immediately made them take their seats and warned one boy in a severe tone when a little later he tried to start something again, and finally sent him out of the room. He announced to the boys that they were there for business and as long as they attended to business everything would be all right, but as soon as anybody tried to start anything, out he would go. He had no further trouble. The class showed the utmost loyalty and respect, and some of them later came back and told him that they were glad he made them keep order because they had been able to get so much more out of the class than they had out of some other classes in which there was continual disorder.

Mr. Jones found a similar state when he met his class the first day. He, however, paid no attention to the boys but went about setting up some material on the front desk. The boys showed no inclination to stop their fun during the whole period and he made no effort to check them. Finally, when it was almost over, he called them together, made them sit down and told them that if that was what they came to class for, all well and good. He said, however, he had some experiments to show them in case they would rather have that sort of thing. He would save the experiments for next time, and they could either continue running around the room or they could have the experiments performed. The next time there was no trouble. The boys sat quietly, and from then on there was never any question of disorder.

Questions

1. Apparently these two methods accomplished the same end. How do you account for this?

2. Is there anything which makes one method more desirable than the other? What effects have to be taken into account? What would be the attitude of each set of boys in future situations of this kind?
3. To what extent is the success of either method dependent upon the personality of the teacher? Could the average teacher succeed with either plan?

3. DISCIPLINE

Miss Harper had a class of Junior girls in high school who were just at the age when they seemed to be giggling most of the time. They would laugh at nothing at all, and the most straightforward remarks at times would set off titters in all parts of the room. Serious paragraphs in Shakespeare were treated as very funny. Some of the girls were constantly interposing bright remarks which the others thought very amusing. The teacher constantly admonished them that this was not the way young ladies should act, and she tried to stop the bright remarks by means of sarcastic comments, but it seemed to be of no avail. The giggling and comments continued.

. . . . .

Miss Renard is teaching beginning French. She has three pupils who continually come unprepared to class. When called on, they either attempt to bluff, or else they bluntly say they don't know. She attempted to scare them into doing their work by giving a quiz at the end of three weeks, but they studied hard the night before and all did passing work. Whenever she says anything reprovingly about their failure to get the assignments, they always have some ready excuse. Nothing seems to bother them.

. . . . .

"One day another boy and I were laughing over a joke that he had told me and she ordered us to quit laughing (it was during a recitation) and that only made me laugh the more. I could not quit even then but had to laugh the more. This made her mad and she came down the aisle and hit me on

the back, but it did not hurt and I laughed in her face. Then she ordered me to go to the principal's office. . . . The principal changed me to another room, and that teacher and I never speak any more."

Questions

1. Are these incidents to be expected in most classrooms? What satisfactions are the children getting?
2. What might the teachers have done to handle such situations with more insight?
3. Suppose in the last incident, the boy had stayed in the same room, what would the future relations have been? As the principal, would you have made such a change?
4. What can a teacher do to prevent such situations arising?

4. I WON'T STAY

Roy, an overgrown boy, sixteen years old, had lost forty-five minutes because of tardiness. The assistant principal explained when the time should be made up. The boy walked out of the office and said nothing. Later he shambled in and announced in a loud tone of voice, "I'm not goin' to stay tonight."

Very calmly she said, "Just why don't you want to stay tonight?" He answered that he couldn't and gave other reasons such as "Because."

The assistant continued to press the question of why he didn't *want* to stay, being careful not to ask why he *would not* stay. He finally said, "If I'd tell you, you would make me stay." She said, "How do you know what I would do?"

He finally blurted out, "I want to go rabbit-hunting." She very calmly said, "Very well, come in tomorrow evening." The boy was struck speechless. When he recovered, he said, "Do you mean it?"

He came in the next evening and dutifully made up his lost time.

Questions

1. How do you account for Roy's original attitude?
2. Will this treatment be likely to make the teacher's problem more difficult in future situations? Why, or why not?

5. KNOW OUR SCHOOLS

While Lancaster is badly in need of a new high school, the superintendent is quite sure that the community is not very eager at the present time to finance such an improvement. He feels that if the citizens can get to know better what the high school is doing and what it can do, they will be much more ready to vote for a new building. He therefore plans to have an exhibit and show what the various high school classes are doing. At the same time the visitors cannot but help see the wretched condition of the building and the equipment.

. . . . .

The reporter of the "Daily Tribune" came to the superintendent of schools and offered him the use of an entire page once a week for school news. The only condition was that the superintendent was to be responsible for seeing that enough material was available on time to fill the space.

Questions

1. What does the ordinary community want to know about its schools? How might a superintendent increase the readiness for information about the schools?
2. Where changes are needed, what motives in human nature are most successfully appealed to? What techniques are used in public advertising? What is the difference between advertising a suit of clothes and a school system?
3. What other ways of getting the public acquainted with the schools could you suggest?

6. MORE MONEY AGAIN

Greenville needs better buildings and equipment. Although the number of children in school has been increasing, there have been no new buildings for fifteen years. The city population has been constant during this period, and while the assessed valuation has gone up, this is largely due to the decreased purchasing power of the dollar. The community is conservative but homogeneous. What must a superintendent consider in planning a campaign for new buildings?

. . . . .

Some village teachers decide to attempt to get an increase in salaries. The superintendent is neutral; he admits the teachers should have higher salaries, but does not think the community will stand for the cost. A committee of teachers is appointed to study the question, and they find that while the salaries are higher than in 1915, the purchasing power is less. Can the teachers do anything?

Questions

1. What motives are useful in getting people to part with money? Are they equally effective?
2. How can one determine which ones to use in particular communities and for specific situations? What are the consequences of appeal to each?
3. Are there especially effective ways to secure each? Are the methods and devices used by advertisers in "The Saturday Evening Post" applicable to the above situations?

7. PROPOSALS

The superintendent was anxious to substitute a new system of marking. He proposed that standard tests be given semi-annually, and that pupils' marks be reported entirely in terms of these tests. He proposed further that classes be sectioned on the basis of their educational age as shown by these test

scores. He presented the matter for discussion and explained how much work it would save and how much it would improve the efficiency of the system. To his surprise, he found that most of the teachers were opposed to it. They didn't say so, but by their attitudes and comments to one another he saw that they thought it was just another innovation. He dropped the proposal for the time being, thinking to himself, "Progress is hopeless with the kind of staff we have here now. Our only hope is to get rid of them and to get in some new blood."

Questions

1. How do you account for the fact that the teachers were reluctant to make a change in their marking procedures?
2. Under what conditions are persons most likely to want to make a change in their habits?
3. How far could the superintendent have used this psychology to secure a different attitude toward his proposal?
4. Was the superintendent right in thinking that such a system would be desirable?
5. How could the superintendent, in employing new teachers, make sure that he was getting those who would react favorably to modern ideas and would not get into ruts?

8. SUBJECTS

It was Monday afternoon and the teachers of the Hudson High School were having a staff meeting. The subject of discussion was the question of the attention that should be paid to English in the other courses. The head of the English Department explained that the teaching of correct English and spelling is likely to be of little avail if the pupils know that they are not checked up in other courses. The teacher of dramatics replied that she didn't intend to bother with correct English in her class. She said she had tried it and it always killed creative effort. The math teacher said he had enough difficulties teaching his own subject, and besides, when he gave a mark at the end of the semester, it ought to represent

the person's achievement in mathematics. The thing that counted was whether the child could get the correct answer. The general feeling seemed to be that it was unfair for the English teachers to expect the other teachers in the school to do their work for them. You are the principal of this school and have been presiding at the meeting.

Questions

1. Is the English Department justified in its attitude?
2. Is the teacher of dramatics correct in her statement?
3. Are there any other objections that might be raised to the suggestions?
4. What would you do, as chairman of the meeting, with things in their present state?

9. SATISFIER OR ANNOYER

Miss Swain, the supervisor in reading and arithmetic for the elementary schools, gave a series of standardized tests in all the schools. The children in Miss Jones's room did very poorly, falling considerably below the average for the city and also below the norms given for the tests. A few days after the tests had been given, Miss Swain stopped in to visit Miss Jones's class while the reading lesson was in progress. Miss Jones was giving the children the results of the test, showing them how poorly they stood in comparison with the other groups.

She spoke somewhat as follows:

"We not only did very badly in the test, but were way below the standard for boys and girls of your age and grade. I know it is not because you have not been taught these things in school. You had the same chance to learn them as the others, but you just haven't tried. Your papers were slovenly, careless, and you made mistakes that even a second grade child would know better than to make."

After the lesson was over, Miss Swain raised the point as to the effectiveness of such treatment.

Questions

1. Was the teacher justified in handling the class the way she did?
2. Would she have succeeded better if she had found something for which to praise them rather than to blame them?
3. Are there other motives that she might have used beside praise and blame?
4. What are the consequences when teachers talk to children like this? Is it all right if not done too often?

10. NAMES AND FACES

Miss Wiggins is a high school teacher. This is her first year in the school, and she has four classes and one study hall to take care of. In all, she has 165 different pupils. She is anxious to get acquainted with the children as quickly as possible so that she can know their names when she sees them. She seats all of her groups alphabetically so as to help her make the connections, and she has a chart for each class with pupils' names on it. She also takes the class lists and practices on them each night, trying to be able to repeat the whole list perfectly. These help her learn the names more quickly than if the children were allowed to sit where they chose.

Questions

1. What other suggestions are there for helping her learn the names quickly?
2. She notices an advertisement for memory improvement in a magazine. Would you advise her to send for that?
3. Would memorizing poetry help her improve her memory so that she could recall the names better?
4. What are the connections that she is to form before she will be able to call pupils by name? How are they formed?
5. She soon finds that in any particular class she can tell the children by name, even without her chart. However, when she meets them on the street or in a group gathering, she

finds that she is able to recognize what class they come from but she has great difficulty in calling up the name. How would you account for this situation?

6. She has two people in one class that look something like one another, although the resemblance is not striking. She is continually confusing their names, and whenever she meets one of them, asks herself, "Is this Ruth Perkins or is it Pauline Renner?" It seems to her that most of the time she makes the wrong guess. What would you suggest to help her remedy this difficulty? Can you think of any analogous situations?

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X. PROBLEMS OF INTELLECTUAL ADJUSTMENT

1. "THE SUCCESSFUL FAILURE"

"Louise F., a robust, dull, sixteen-year-old girl, was referred as a conduct problem, having handed in another girl's home work for her own, forged her parents' signature on her report cards, changed F's for failures in two subjects to P's, and stolen money from a pocketbook. Her classroom record was 'lazy, talkative, defiant, and disobedient.' She ranked as a third-term pupil, academic course, but should have been sixth.

"Louise is the oldest of three children, all girls. Both parents received considerable education in Russia, their native country. They came to America when young and speak English fluently. The father has been successful in business, has provided a comfortable home for his family in a good neighborhood, and both he and his wife desire to give their children all possible advantages, chief among which is an education. The mother is a domineering, energetic, nervous woman who likes to plan ahead and who is apt to be upset if things do not turn out as she expects. She has been greatly disappointed over Louise's high-school record, which for lack of a better reason she has attributed to inferior application and effort. The second daughter is delicate and neurotic, but to her mother's joy she is well advanced in her classes, and she is continually urged to fresh achievements by bribes of money and fine clothes. The youngest is healthy, but has night terrors and resorts to tantrums if foiled in her attempts to get her way.

"It was easy to understand Louise's problem. She has not sufficient intelligence to enable her to master an academic

high-school course, but her family and most of her teachers have not realized this fundamental difficulty. Her parents openly expressed their disappointment and vexation. They attempted to goad her to do better by ridicule, sarcasm, and constant comparison with her brighter sister, of whom she was bitterly jealous. She was referred to as 'the successful failure'; she was made to study aloud that her mother might know that she was studying; recreation was reduced to a minimum in order that she might concentrate on nothing but school. For the same reason she was compelled to give up a Saturday position as sales girl. This she had greatly enjoyed, as she had had the satisfaction of knowing that in this work she was acceptable and it was pleasant to earn, even though her family made sarcastic comments on her lack of ambition in being willing to be a Fourteenth Street clerk.

"She dreaded the time when report cards were given out, as it meant humiliation, a fresh sense of failure, renewed bitterness of invidious comparisons between her and the 'darling daughter'—as she cuttingly called her more favored sister—and often the loss of things promised her. Hence her cheating. The class work was so far over her head that she had no real interest in it; consequently she was bored, restless, disorderly. The defiance and disobedience shown to certain teachers probably sprang from a revolt against authority and a desire to be self-assertive, which may have been a compensation for her very definite feeling of inferiority.

"Naturally, she was an active, happy, rather boisterous girl, whose greatest delight was in sports. She liked, too, certain kinds of handwork where she got concrete results from her efforts, such as making bead bags and sweaters. For the same reason she was interested in cooking 'fancy dishes' for the family which, because they were out of the ordinary, brought her favorable comment.

"The plan for this girl involved (1) an attempt to make her family realize that she was not fitted for academic work. Great care was taken during the interviews to stress the fact that she could do something of a more practical nature, an

ability as valuable in its way as the ability to deal with abstract material. Emphasis was laid on the faultiness of the mother's methods. All this paved the way for permission for (2) a change of course to include cooking and sewing. Then, (3) special efforts were made to get her teachers interested in her, and she was encouraged to believe that she could succeed in new lines of work. And (4) she was allowed to join a club of boys and girls of her own age.

"Her mother proved most coöperative and asked to be told of books and lectures that would aid her in understanding and properly training her children. The school was most helpful in carrying out suggestions, and Louise ceased to be a conduct problem, as she became happier and more interested."

—*The Application of Psychiatry to High-School Problems,* by Anne T. Bingham, M. D.,
(Reprint from Mental Hygiene)

Questions

1. Do you know of similar cases? Is the outward behavior always the same for this type of difficulty?
2. What other suggestions can you give for handling this type of difficulty?
3. What suggestions would be helpful in preventing cases like this one? How can you account for the attitude of Louise's parents? When in a child's life can adequate evidence on intellectual ability first be obtained?

2. A "MORON"

A teacher submitted the following problem:

"The child is six years old and a girl. The shape of her head and her features suggest a moron, but her intellect so far is fairly normal, although a little slow in grasping things. She also has a speech defect, but when given words, syllable by syllable, she can pronounce them properly and remembers them, but does not grasp many at a time. Her power of concentration is very poor, but her ability to imitate is well

developed. She cannot button her clothes, but puts them on, also washes herself, and after she was taught could go to the bathroom. She is very fond of music and carries a tune.

"I had her in my kindergarten last summer, and when with the other children one noticed her abnormalities, but it did not affect the group. She was very dependent at first, but gradually overcame that and after a few strenuous lessons along certain lines, I had little trouble with her. I could not class her exactly as a moron, as she showed so much ability along certain lines. She memorized the songs, knew the different games, and at home and school played like other little children, imaginary games with her toys, etc. She had a pony, drove and rode it with no sense of fear. She was very awkward in running, skipping, etc., but this did not bother her and she always attempted everything the others did. She was very fond of dolls and the younger children. One habit she acquired while at kindergarten was the 'act' of pushing. This she got from the children doing it to her, when they found her in the way. This, however, was easily corrected. The children liked her and played with her, but treated her as a baby. Her table manners at lunch period were very bad. She did not seem to know how to feed herself. This I found resulted from her home environment. Her parents always fed her.

"I knew her family well and therefore knew her background and judge her a case of 'victim of circumstances.' Both her parents were well along in years, the father about fifty and the mother about forty-four when she was born. She had a very hard time at birth, and when she was about two years old, fell down the cellar stairs and hit her head. They had brought her up with every care, doing everything for her, and until she came to kindergarten, she had rarely seen or played with other children. Her physical health was splendid, with the exception of a navel rupture, which was being corrected. Her mother had not bothered very much about her mental alertness nor had she done anything to encourage this. She got on much better with her father. Her mother had also kept her

tied outside on a long rope to play, when she was busy. She understood everything that was said to her, but often was slow in obeying and often showed stubbornness. She had a very lovable disposition and wanted affection. She tried particularly hard when her endeavors were praised and met with approval, and always acknowledged her own accomplishments joyfully by saying, 'See, I did it.'

"I think if she could have been kept with someone who was interested in her and gave her every opportunity she would respond and improve. Her appearance, speech defect, and home enivironments were her chief drawbacks. Her parents were of plain good farmer-stock. Her mother was a graduate nurse."

Questions

1. Are there physiological signs by which one can recognize feeble-minded persons? What is the evidence?
2. Is this child a "victim of circumstance"? What do you believe to be the chief drawbacks?
3. How is the "moron" group defined?
4. Is lack of ability to memorize one of the surest signs of inferior intellect?
5. Would this girl be likely to be dangerous to society?
6. What sort of training would be most likely to be helpful to her?
7. Consider the following statements. At what points do you disagree with this statement of modern science? Why?

"Concerning Mental Deficiency

"*1.* Many people still believe:
That feeble-mindedness is a mental disease.
Science is teaching:
That feeble-mindedness is an arrest of intellectual growth in the early development life of the individual.

"*2.* Many people still believe:
That feeble-mindedness can be cured like mental disease.
Science is teaching:
That true feeble-mindedness is an organic condition in-

volving a lack of development of brain tissue and cannot be cured in a medical sense.

"*3.* Many people still believe:
That feeble-mindedness is always hereditary.
Science is teaching:
That many of the feeble-minded, estimated as approximately half, owe their mental defect to accidental causes, such as prenatal neglect, injuries at birth, and early childhood diseases like scarlet fever, infantile paralysis, and 'sleeping sickness.'

"*4.* Many people still believe:
That sterilization is the best solution of the problem of the feeble-minded.
Science is teaching:
That sterilization will not solve the problem because feeble-mindedness is not always due to a defective germ plasm, and because in our present state of knowledge about the laws of heredity we cannot say how much or when feeble-mindedness is transmissible.

"*5.* Many people still believe:
That the feeble-minded are all a menace to society.
Science is teaching:
That the feeble-minded are not necessarily delinquent or criminally-minded *per se*, and that their occasional danger to society depends upon other factors besides their mental defect. There are good feeble-minded as well as bad feeble-minded.

"*6.* Many people still believe:
That segregation in institutions is the only way to control the feeble-minded.
Science is teaching:
That segregation is necessary only for the low grades of feeble-minded and for the relatively few defective delinquents, or the incorrigibly bad feeble-minded, for whom little can be done in school or at home.

"*7.* Many people still believe:
That the feeble-minded are a total loss to society.

Science is teaching:
That most of the feeble-minded, if taken early, can be trained to do productive manual work, and with understanding, guidance and supervision can lead happy, useful and social lives.

"*8.* Many people still believe:
That the feeble-minded are not teachable at school.
Science is teaching:
That their intellectual capacities are too limited to profit from the ordinary school curriculum, but that they can be taught a trade in the special classes which are being provided in increasing numbers in the public schools.

"*9.* Many people still believe:
That the feeble-minded are all equally mentally defective.
Science is teaching:
That there is a gradual curve from the extreme condition of the idiot, whose 'mental age' is one or two years, to the moron and borderline cases, in which the 'mental age' ranges from eight years to normal.

"*10.* Many people still believe:
That the feeble-minded are readily recognizable.
Science is teaching:
That the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness is frequently a difficult matter, even when the intelligence test is administered by an expert psychologist, and that the psychiatrist must often be called in to eliminate various causes of remedial mental backwardness before a condition of true mental defect is established."

(From Mental Hygiene Bulletin)

3. IN NEED OF PROMOTION

"Robert had recently come from a private school into public school. He was placed in 7A, although his mother said the examiner at the private school had recommended that he be

placed in ninth grade. During one semester Robert's work in 7A was so poor that he was forced to repeat it. Only one teacher had a good word to say for him. Given a Binet-Simon test, his I. Q. was found to be 131, with a mental age well over 16. His work on the standard achievement tests, with the exception of arithmetic, placed this fourteen-year-old boy on a par with the sixteen-year-olds. He was given private tutoring in arithmetic and was promoted two classes. His work improved marvelously. In arithmetic the other day, Robert assisted the teacher to coach the slow ones. His tendency to show off has been much reduced."

Questions

1. Put in your own words Robert's more or less unconscious feeling toward the situation in which he found himself in public school.
2. Are there any types of pupils who might show similar symptoms for whom this treatment would certainly fail? How can one be certain?
3. What other kinds of unusual behavior might one expect to find accompanying similar situations of maladjustment?

4. A READING DISABILITY

Ted was fifteen years old, and was sent to the visiting teacher as a behavior case. In checking up his various achievements, she found that he was especially deficient in reading. Even very simple passages caused him much difficulty. For example, he would make such mistakes as calling "often" "after," and "above" was pronounced as "along." He seemed to have no special difficulty with arithmetic. His spelling, however, was poor. His visual memory was normal. His auditory memory was somewhat defective. He found great difficulty in reproducing numerals which were read to him. His eyesight was normal. His hearing also was not defective.

Questions

1. What other factors might be involved in such a difficulty?
2. What further tests could the teacher give to him?
3. What remedial measures might be suggested?

5. A FAMILY SKELETON

Madeline's mother was much disturbed over her term report. It indicated that while Madeline did satisfactory work in spelling, drawing, penmanship, and household arts, she did only fair work in social science and reading, while in arithmetic she had failed again. Mother went to the principal of the Junior High School. She urged that Madeline be promoted in all of her other subjects and be permitted to drop arithmetic. She said in part, "Madeline's father wasn't any good in arithmetic and I never could get it. It don't make any difference to us. Her father makes more money than most school teachers that can do arithmetic just fine. It ain't necessary for Madeline to learn it, and the way she is, she can't anyhow. She's bright enough, but arithmetic is one of the things that she just can't do."

Questions

1. How would you estimate Madeline's general level of intelligence, assuming that her attitude is good?
2. Do people tend to have special abilities and disabilities in particular subjects? How much variation in achievement do children show?
3. What would be the effect on Madeline's achievement in arithmetic of the attitude which her mother and father held?
4. How far do you think Madeline's mother is justified in assuming that the matter taught in Junior High School arithmetic contributes little if anything to Madeline's character and career?

5. What administrative systems would permit Madeline to work at the things she was best able to do?

6. A TROUBLED FATHER

A father consulted a psychologist about his boy, who was twelve years old and in the sixth grade. He said the boy was very backward in arithmetic. He wanted to know what he could do to be of help. He said the boy brought his arithmetic work home every night and the father assisted. The boy usually made a stupid mistake, and the father grew irritated and could not understand why a boy shouldn't have more sense than to do the sort of things which his son did. The father felt that the boy would have hard work getting along in business unless he could develop more skill and accuracy and thoughtfulness in arithmetic. The psychologist tried to discover the points of particular weakness in the boy. Was it addition, multiplication, division, percentage, fractions, or problem solving which caused difficulty? The father thought it was general poorness in arithmetic, not weakness at any particular point. The psychologist urged the father to bring the boy in for testing, which he did. Intelligence tests yielded an I. Q. of 103. Diagnostic arithmetic tests indicated that the boy had an arithmetic age of twelve years, six months, or a grade level about two months in advance of his present placement. He showed a cheerful, matter-of-fact attitude toward his work and didn't seem to be greatly troubled by the situation.

Questions

1. What would you recommend to the father?
2. What tests might have been used to indicate arithmetical abilities?
3. How far is arithmetical ability general and how far is it separate for each of the arithmetical functions? May a person be good at addition and poor at subtraction?
4. The father had planned to send his boy to college. Would you give him any advice on this score?

7. THE PROMOTION OF CHILDREN IN THE CHICAGO SCHOOLS

The following is a letter which was sent to the principals of all schools of Chicago by Wm. McAndrew, when he was Superintendent of Schools:

"This is the time when your attention is concentrated upon the summary of successes and failures of your work of the semester. No one can argue that the city supplies you with teachers enough to bring every exceptional child, however short his period of attendance, to the standard of achievement set for the grade. Every student of educational movements realizes that the traditional usage of making promotion a reward for effort or withholding promotion as a punishment for laziness, bad conduct, etc., has been supplanted by the more intelligent usage of placing children in grades where the greatest benefit to the children is likely.

"In Bulletin No. 131, paragraph 274, June 1, 1926, I summarized the studies to show that 65 per cent to 72 per cent of repeaters do no better work the second time than they do on the first experience in the grade. Students of the problem expressed the opinion that the small percentage of repeaters who do better work during the second attempt may show improvement, not because they are repeating the grade, but because they have gained mental maturity due to their increased age. Where unsatisfactory pupils have been put on probation in the next higher grade for six weeks, 75 per cent reach a satisfactory rating; 85 per cent of these probationers reach an unquestioned right of promotion after the first trial promotion. Whatever our personal opinion is, we can not disregard the results of these experiments. Repetition is too expensive to be required on the old, unproven theory. It is expensive in money and expensive in the lives of children. In case of doubt, the advancement of the pupil is more likely to correct error than holding him back. This is not a matter that can be settled by any general order from headquarters. To set a limit to the number of repeaters would be to substitute

for the judgment that should be exercised in each case, an absurd, mechanical requirement. But the experiment of trial promotions of children of unsatisfactory rating, subsequent special efforts by coöperation with parents, aid of brighter children, tabulation of the results of such an experiment, is fraught with such promise that you, as a progressive schoolmaster, will, I am sure, be desirous to undertake it."

—*School and Society*, April 9, 1927, Vol. 25, p. 423.

Questions

1. What other evidence should be taken into account in dealing with this problem?
2. What constructive adjustments might be substituted for the wasteful procedure to which the superintendent objects? What are the psychological criteria upon which you would judge any proposed substitute?

8. ABILITY GROUPING

School No. 12 has four sections for each grade, one bright group, two average groups, and one slow group. The work in the slow group consists in covering so-called minimum essentials. The bright group is given more opportunity to do work of their own choosing and somewhat less drill on fundamentals. Their reading is much more extensive, and they have posters and exhibits about the room. The average group does work in between these two. The groups are sectioned according to the teachers' judgment. Theoretically, a child can be shifted from one group to another at any time, but actually the number of shifts made during the semester is relatively small, perhaps not more than one or two out of 125 children. There is more shifting at the end of the semester. The teacher of the dull group is always somewhat reluctant to recommend a child for a higher group because she hates to lose a child of that kind out of her group. Teachers are hesitant about recommending children for lower groups because they feel that they would be adding to a burden already great enough.

Questions

1. What are the assumptions underlying ability grouping and what is the evidence concerning them?
2. What things can a teacher expect of a child of I. Q. 110 which she cannot expect of a child of I. Q. 90? Are these differences really significant for school work?
3. Would you recommend a definite method of selecting the groups?
4. How often would children be shifted from one group to another? What can be done to remedy the present situation, in which children are not shifted?
5. When the final marks are made out, should there be any A's in the lowest section? Should there be any F's in the brightest section?

9. PLANS

A survey of the ways in which adjustments are now being made in schools so that persons of different capacity can all achieve educational growth includes the following suggestions:

1. Requiring pupils who fail to repeat.
2. Providing that every pupil shall pass if he has worked hard.
3. Providing ungraded rooms for pupils not well adjusted to the main group.
4. Sectioning into two or more groups on some such basis as teachers' judgment, intelligence tests, or educational tests.
5. The Dalton plan and similar modifications.
6. The Winnetka plan and similar modifications.
7. Rapid promotion of abler pupils.
8. Enriched courses for abler pupils.
9. Provision for separate classifications in each subject so that pupils may be advanced in arithmetic and delayed in social science, etc.
10. Providing different curricula for pupils interested in pre-

vocational training from those offered to pupils whose interests are likely to be academic for some time.

11. Tutoring pupils who are backward or in need of extra attention.
12. A project method in which each contributes according to his capacity to the common enterprise.

Questions

1. What are the advantages and dangers of each of the proposed plans, considered from a psychological point of view?
2. It has been suggested that it would be well for pupils to repeat the courses in which they get the best marks rather than those in which they get the poorest. What is to be said for or against this point of view?
3. What do you consider an enriched curriculum from a psychological point of view? How does it differ from the curriculum which would be offered to the slower pupils? Does "boiling material down" make it easier to comprehend it?

10. THE SCHOOL AND THE INDIVIDUAL

The psychologist in the Jefferson School is considering possible adjustment cases for the next semester. The reports of two boys are given below.

	George Atkins	Albert Karns
Grade	V	V
C. A.	15-0	11
E. A.	10-0	13-4
M. A.	9-2	15-0
Reading	10-0	15-0
Arithmetic	10-9	13-5
Spelling	10-5	12-4
Writing	9-8	12-0
Language	9-0	14-0

Both boys are in good physical health, are normally developed socially for their age, and have no emotional handicaps.

The psychologist recommended that Albert be promoted to the sixth grade with the recommendation to the teacher that she give him opportunity for special work with the chance of being promoted in another half year to the seventh grade. He also recommended that George be promoted at once to the Junior high school and be allowed to enter classes in wood-working and manual arts, and that he be allowed to stay in these classes without regard to regular promotion as long as he seemed to profit from the work that he could do. It was also recommended that he be permitted to enter one of the English classes and the teacher should try to help him get as much as he could out of the work during the semester.

Questions

1. Do you approve of the recommendations made? Is there other information you would like to have before making a decision?
2. What is the purpose of the Junior high school?
3. What is the relation of diplomas and degrees to the adjustment of work for individual pupils?
4. How would you define the purpose of the public school system in terms of the individual pupil? In terms of all the pupils?

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XI. VOCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

1. "THE DOOR STANDS OPEN"

Jane Duncan was in the eighth grade and would graduate in June. She was a bright, neat appearing girl who did fairly good work in her classes, and had an I. Q. of 95. She was fourteen years old and rather more mature than the average child of her age. She told the principal one day that she didn't think she wanted to go to high school. She had a sister who was running a small millinery establishment down town and she said she was anxious to go in with her, and she didn't see that a high school education would help her any in the business.

The principal told her that she was foolish, that everybody should have a high school education at least, and if the parents could afford it, most children should go on to college. He said the day was coming when people without high school diplomas would be looked down on in the community, and that by all odds, she ought to take it now while she could get it.

. . . . .

George Adams came to his high school principal and said he wanted to talk over his future career.

"In about a month I'll be through," he said. "I don't know what to do next. When I was small, I can remember thinking I would like to be a street car conductor, then later I thought I would like to be a policeman, and then after that I thought that the grandest thing would be to be a civil engineer. Now I don't know what I want to do."

The principal looked up the boy's record. He had done B and A work in all his subjects except manual training. His card showed an I. Q. of 110. His parents were well-to-do and anxious for him to go to college.

The principal said, "If I were you, I would take a year off and try several different jobs. I might help you get a position in a bank, and you could probably get a job for a while as helper in a garage, or you might try your hand as clerk in one of the downtown clothing stores. Try these things out for a while and see which one you like best, and then if you find one that seems to fit you fairly well, and if it turns out that you need a college education to better fit you to fill such a position, go to college; but if you find that people in the work you choose think that college isn't necessary, you can go right to work."

. . . . .

A college graduate who had made a score in the top one per cent of his group in an intelligence test, came to the personnel director one day and said, "I don't think I'm using my capacities to the fullest extent. I do fairly good work in all my courses, but I don't have to study very hard. I have a good time and am considered a good sport by the fellows I go with, and probably will do a fairly good job in the sort of work I go into. I've been thinking, however, that if this test means anything, perhaps I have a responsibility to turn my hand to things which I can do which perhaps other people can't do. I don't mean to boast at all, but just to try to face the implications of this examination."

Questions

1. How much is available in the way of sound educational and vocational guidance at the present?
2. To what extent should the average school administrator or teacher try to give guidance to a boy or girl?
3. What is the relation of interest to vocational selection? Are interests permanent? Can they be determined reliably?
4. Do you agree with the principal in the second case in suggesting a trial period? Do you think it would be a good thing for schools and colleges to develop broad finding courses?

2. DISSATISFIED

One of the main problems of vocational adjustment is to help reduce the enormous turnover that is constantly going on. Many of the factors are economic, but usually turnover depends to a large extent upon the characteristics of the individual. Here are three dissatisfied workers who came in touch with a vocational adjustment department.

a. Age twenty-four. Nationality, American. Education, two years high school and business school. Army history, not overseas; in camp life in this country very successful in meeting discouraging factors and in maintaining attitude of pleasantness in all army situations. Intelligence score 138, rating A. Occupation, stenographer, secretarial experience for four years prior to enlistment. After returning from army to old firm, he was given advancement as private secretary to president. In this position he was unable to make good after a trial of four months, although working overtime to the limit of his capacity. Became very nervous over situation and was finally returned to general stenographic work with no reduction in salary in same firm.

Subject was thoroughly discouraged over his situation, but saw no way out. Business men urged that the thing he must do was to stick to the firm, prove that he had the right qualifications, and regain the lost position, although subject felt this could not be done. The vocational counselor discovered that sales work had always been extremely interesting to the subject, and a plan was made for him to enter this field through the medium of stenography. A position was secured and taken at a reduction in salary. A plan was outlined for the completion of high-school education.

High-school work is now completed. After year and a half with the new firm, subject has been promoted several times and is now in charge of other men and is displaying excellent ability in his chosen work. His emotional attitude, due to failure in former firm, had definitely inhibited any improvement; in a new environment he lost his discouragement, in-

creased his efficiency, and returned to his normal emotional level.

b. Age twenty-six. Education, sixth-grade public school at age of fifteen; out of school much of time because of illness. Intelligence score 41, rating C—. Medical history showed at age of three, serious illness, measles, abscess in head. In his seventh year the subject became physically incapable of school work. He found it difficult to concentrate, was intensely exhausted after mental work, was not strong in physical work. Father died of cancer, sister of pneumonia; longevity in family on both sides. Subject had heart trouble which had caused him to train himself in repression of activity.

Subject had decided mechanical interests and thought electrical or wood-working occupation would interest him; disliked work with people. He tried farm position for a year, liked it, but came back to city because of mother's dislike for locality. Interests remained the same, but he had no opportunity to train for either because of necessity of earning living. He continued to suffer from exhaustion after either physical or mental work.

(From *Mental Hygiene*)

c. Miss X worked in an office for two years before she left recently to try something else. Her record showed a great many absences during the two years. She wasted time and annoyed others. She has moved several times to different jobs in the office, but could not seem to be properly placed. She was quite capable and was promoted at one time to be head of the files. However, she resented authority, was uncoöperative, and had the feeling of being very important. She could not secure coöperation from those under her, so that finally it was necessary to put her at other work.

Questions

1. What are the psychological requirements of an individual which must be met either in the job or out if that individual is to be happy?

2. To what extent do these vary from one person to another? Can they be modified?
3. Is it possible to predict successful or unsuccessful adjustments along these lines when a person applies for a job? What evidence is useful?
4. What can the schools do to prepare individuals for these latter adjustments?

3. FORTUNE TELLING

R. Sumner Balderston, Character Analyst,—the sign read. He did not offer to reveal the exact secrets of his profession, but evidently believed in striking a balance among the various methods used by different workers in his field. He talked with the subject for about 30 minutes, apparently pursuing no definite course, for he jumped about in his questions. His remarks at the close were somewhat as follows:

"You are wasting your time until you get into executive work. You unmistakably belong to the 'vital' type. Public speaking, politics, or sales management could certainly be followed successfully. You excel at making quick decisions and you will brook no interference when you want a thing. Your hands show signs of artistic temperament—you are somewhat of a dreamer. You have all the characteristics required of an art critic, a decorator, or a connoisseur of antiques. Your imagination and sympathy areas are well developed. You might try your hand at inventing. You read men like a book and would do well as a lawyer or an efficiency engineer or consultant. If you can learn to cultivate your secretiveness, control your sublimity, and unloose your libido, you will be a benefactor to all."

Questions

1. To what extent are one's characteristics revealed by his physical make-up?
2. Is it generally recognized now by psychologists that there are various types into which individuals can be classified?

3. What is the evidence with regard to each of the following "aptitude signs"?
   Blond or brunette
   Shape of profile
   Height of head above the ears
   Lines in the hand
   Handwriting
   Color of eyes
   Height of forehead

4. VOCATIONAL INTERESTS

In a study by the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, considerable data bearing on the change of vocational interests of 2760 recent graduates of engineering schools, was collected. Twelve per cent were found to be engaged in work of a non-engineering character; among 1334 older graduates, 16 per cent were in non-engineering fields. Many of the others were in work that could only be called "associated" engineering work. Of those who took the course in mechanical engineering, 51 per cent were found at work in precisely that field. Results of a similar nature could probably be obtained for almost any occupation.

Questions

1. What has been your own experience in regard to vocational preference? What factors have been associated with changes in preference?
2. How do you explain the origin and development of a vocational preference?
3. In the face of figures like the above, can any use be made of vocational preferences indicated by children in junior or senior high school?

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XII. CAUSES OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

A. HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

1. ORIGINAL NATURE

Warren Brown, three years of age, was given a toy train for a birthday present. He seemed overjoyed with the new plaything and immediately began experimenting with it. The coupling of the coaches seemed to be defective and after trying to adjust it two or three times he became furious and used every effort to destroy the toy which a few minutes before had brought him so much happiness.

. . . . .

I have observed a child two years of age. The baby plays about the room with toys and various objects, seemingly unconscious of the presence of anyone in the room, but the minute the child is left alone and he is conscious of no one being around he begins to cry and run for the door. He is not satisfied until someone is around.

. . . . .

I was recently interested in observing a boy twenty months old. He was a bright, intelligent fellow and I believe in every way normal for his age. He went along the street and picked up pebble after pebble until both his hands were filled. Whenever he happened to be at a place where there were pebbles he made determined efforts to collect them and insisted upon carrying them home with him. Bowlders or large rocks had no interest for him. The pebbles had no apparent utilitarian value for him as he did not care to throw them, make patterns, or put them in his mouth.

. . . . .

A man collected newspapers until his entire house was filled with them, leaving only a small space in which to live.

. . . . . .

In a class of adults it was discovered that collections had been made at ages ranging from nine and ten to over fifty, consisting of theater programs, magazine covers, leaves, advertising samples, rocks, stamps, tiny statuettes and carvings, doll furniture, dolls of foreign lands, tadpoles, dead fish, bees, paper money, medals, pictures of great musicians, errors clipped from newspapers.

. . . . . .

A group was visiting the Blarney Castle and trying the usual feat of leaning out and downward to kiss the Blarney Stone. Two of them were almost petrified with fear. In order to be game they tried to make themselves do it, but they could not succeed. One of them explained that whenever she looked down from a high place, she almost fainted with fear and dizziness. Even the normal members of the party showed signs of trembling when they had finished the ordeal.

Questions

1. What characteristics of instinctive, original nature can you find in the above incidents? How can they be recognized?
2. How would these be explained by persons who reject the instinct hypothesis?
3. Suggest additional examples of instinctive behavior.
4. Of what value to a teacher is knowledge of the instincts suggested?

2. BORN AFRAID?

"I think that fear, with all of its complicated nature, is an inborn, unlearned instinct with Mary Alice. She was just about ten months old when it was first called to my attention.

"Her daddy brought her a new rubber ball, and seeing the child seated on the floor, rolled the ball slowly to her. The

child turned screaming and made a desperate attempt to get away from the ball. The ball was a new object to her, but no amount of coaxing, explanations on his part, could induce her to let him roll the ball to her. She would touch the ball, watch it roll in other directions, but immediately scream when she saw it coming toward her.

"At the age of two this fear, which was not fear of the ball, but of the ball coming toward her, seemed to have been transferred to a dog, and only to one that was running in her direction. She would watch the dogs from the porch, and although never quite easy when they were near her, yet did not have the keen suffering that she had when they were coming toward her.

"The child is now ten years of age and the fear is still a part of her, so very much so that the family have not been able to keep the dogs that they have bought, getting them with the idea of redirecting the original tendency and substituting another response instead of the apparent undesirable original one."

Questions

1. Have you ever met similar situations? How did they arise?
2. How would this reaction be explained by J. B. Watson?
3. Suggest some situations into which you would expect the same attitude to transfer.
4. What evidence is there as to the results obtainable from each of the following methods of dealing with the fear:
   (a) Punishing the child.
   (b) Praising the child for being brave.
   (c) Placing the child with others who are not afraid.
   (d) Connecting the feared object with some intense satisfaction, such as a piece of candy.
   (e) Reasoning.
   (f) Repeating the stimulus until the child gets used to it.
   (g) Ignoring it.

3. EUGENICS

The newspapers of September 30, 1925, carried the following item:

"Iowa Eugenics Law Bars Marriage to 100,000

"Des Moines, Ia., Sept. 29.—Iowa was astounded to-day by the first result of the new eugenics law—the disqualification for marriage of 100,000 of her resident citizens.

"The list of names represents all persons more than 14 years old who now are or have been inmates of state institutions for the insane or feeble-minded.

"Copies of the list are to be furnished all the state's county clerks whose duty it will be to refuse marriage license applicants whose names appear on the lists.

"Quarterly revision of the list, as provided by law, may reduce the number disqualified."

Questions

1. If you were called before a legislative commission to advise on such a law, what facts would you present to them?
2. On the whole, toward what conclusion would these facts lead you?
3. Would the strict enforcement of such a law for three generations eliminate practically all feeble-mindedness and insanity?

4. MUSICAL TALENT

The child was about four years old when his father who was a musician, began to teach him the notes and scales on the piano.

One day when the child was very much interested in playing with his toys, the father sat at the piano and struck a note, then asked the child what note it was. The child answered correctly. The father struck several other notes and received a correct reply for each one. The child continued with his play.

The father was very much surprised but very glad to know his son had absolute pitch at the age of four. This child, when five years old, played the cornet, also would accompany on the piano his father when he played the cornet.

One time at a Club meeting, the father and son were asked to give a musical number. The hostesses told the father when he arrived that her piano hadn't been used much lately and she had tried to have it tuned for the occasion, but the tuner failed to come.

When the time came for the musical number, the father called his little son who was playing with another child.

The boy struck only a few notes on the piano when he stopped. This caused the father to stop and he commanded the child to go on. The child looked pleadingly at the father and said, "It hurts, Daddy."

When he was almost six, he went with his father to a musical concert. After the concert, friends were talking to the father and one, to notice the child, asked him which one he liked best. He promptly replied, "The one he sang in B flat." This answer was a surprise to the father.

Questions

1. At what point do you believe this child's heredity was different from that of the average?
2. Account in terms of the principles of learning for each of the other incidents.

5. PERSONALITY

Jimmy's mother had brought him to the clinic because she said that she was unable to do anything with him. Whenever he was not allowed to do something he wanted to do, he burst out crying, and if the desired object was not forthcoming immediately, Jimmy (aged three) would have a temper tantrum. She explained that in this way he took after his father, who had a terrible temper. The clinic suggested that Jimmy be put in a nursery school and so the next morning

Jimmy and his mother appeared at the school. His mother was afraid to leave him alone because she was sure that just as soon as she left, he would begin crying, but the teacher finally convinced her that Jimmy was all right, and she departed. During the course of the week Jimmy had only two temper tantrums while at the nursery school, and they were of short duration.

. . . . .

Sam was brought to the psychological clinic by his mother, who was very much discouraged with him. She said he didn't have any will power. He would sit around the house all day without offering to lift a finger to help in things that were being done. In school he did average work, always getting his lessons but never doing more than was required. His mother explained that his father had been the same way. His father died when Sam was about six months old. She explained that she had tried every device that she knew of to make Sam amount to something, and now she was at the end of her resources.

Questions

1. How much influence do you think heredity played in determining these conditions? What other possible causal factors can you suggest?
2. To what extent can such conditions be changed? How would you suggest that the parents go about remedying the situations? To what extent do the generalizations about habit formation operate in the development of such things as tempers and will power?

B. PHYSIOLOGICAL FACTORS

1. A MIRACULOUS CURE

A proposal to establish a special class for the less intelligent children was under consideration.

"Some of our children are positively feeble-minded," said one teacher. "A school located in our district draws in certain

youngsters who ought to be sent to a state institution. They will never be able to take care of themselves. We are encouraging crime by trying to educate them as we do other children."

One of the new teachers had what she felt to be a better plan. "The notion that feeble-mindedness is fixed forever and forever is out of date," she said. "In the school where I was before, we had a pupil who was worse than any of these. He was dwarfed in stature, his features were misshapen, he talked very thickly, if at all; he was interested in nothing, almost an idiot. Dr. Blank treated him with some sort of gland material and he became a perfectly normal child. He grew physically, his features became more regular, his mind waked up. It was a perfect miracle."

Questions

1. What was the gland treatment which Dr. Blank probably administered? What are cases of this sort called?
2. Is feeble-mindedness capable of being cured? If so, what treatment would you recommend?
3. Are most feeble-minded persons likely to become delinquent or criminal?
4. Should the feeble-minded be in the special class with the low normal?
5. What are the particular advantages of a special class? What disadvantages may be expected?

2. DAN'S DIFFICULTIES

Dan has been very much of a puzzle to his parents. Both of them are college graduates engaged in educational work. His mother was thrown from a buggy during a runaway four months before his birth, but felt no ill effects. The attending physician expected an instrumental delivery, but was surprised by a reversed position, resulting in some injury to the child's neck. His breathing was for some time a little labored and accompanied by a wheeze. His mother became dangerously ill when he was three months old, so he was weaned.

Dan grew strong and large. He was a remarkably good baby. He never cried. Even when a pin was stuck into him inadvertently one day, he made it known only by wiggling and fussing. He did not walk until he was nineteen months old, although his arm and leg muscles were strong. At three years he was riding a velocipede three or four miles with no apparent fatigue effects, although he rode with great impulsiveness and energy.

Adenoids and tonsils were removed and his loud breathing stopped. He was exposed to a number of childhood diseases but didn't contract them. A specialist who attended him was puzzled by the splendid physical development and the child's emotional state with severe tantrums and retarded speech. Dan did not begin to use definite words until two years of age. Consonants troubled him greatly. At three and a half years his hair began to fall out, and a mixed treatment of thymus, pituitary, suprarenal, and thyroid gland extracts was given him. They produced a vigorous growth of new hair and had a decidedly good effect upon the child's nervousness and speech defects. In kindergarten he was active both physically and mentally. He shoved other children around without seeming to realize that it hurt them, explaining that he didn't mean to. Whenever his desire for a bright object was not fulfilled, Dan threw his head back and swung his arms and hands. He was not spoiled by giving in to those exhibitions, but they died out very slowly. He broke most of his toys. Nevertheless, the kindergarten teacher reported him to be "a very bright child, but very, very impulsive and emotional but amenable to reason."

At about four years his sleep seemed to be broken by bad dreams. The child would occasionally get out of bed in a seeming hysteria with every muscle of his arms and legs aquiver and his face distorted with pain.

His mental development is difficult of definition. He early learned clean habits and showed an interest in pictures, drawing and building. His teacher believed him to be bright and his father reported a number of experiences, such as the six-

year-old boy figuring out for himself without explanation that his father's shadow was bigger than his own because his father was bigger. A Stanford-Binet test yielded an I.Q. of 80, due to failure on the parts involving the use of language. The examiner would not be sure of his score, however, because of difficulty in interpreting the boy's speech. Examination at an excellent medical clinic showed the need for glasses and disclosed a very small sella turcica, suggesting the need for pituitary treatment. The correction of the eyesight difficulty, which had left the child in a blurred and criss-cross world, doubtless helped very much. Together with the pituitary treatment, it resulted in a very definite change in temperament. The boy does not seem to be the same child. His parents are mystified and delighted. He is making a satisfactory school adjustment and normal progress.

Questions

1. What other glands might, if disordered, produce similar symptoms?
2. Could feeble-mindedness occur in a strain in which the parents were normal and well educated?

3. BAD OR SICK

A number of vanity cases and small pieces of jewelry had been stolen from the school coat room. The situation became serious and the authorities found it necessary to take some action. They left money in available places in the coat room, but it was not taken. Responsibility for the taking of the vanity cases was finally fixed upon Alice, a nine-year-old girl and a daughter of highly respected members of the community. Her parents were quite able to supply all of Alice's demands, so there was no need for such theft. The mother was much upset by the report, and after a severe scolding, deprived Alice of certain privileges. In less than two weeks Alice was caught stealing again. She was whipped. Within two days she was again caught stealing. This time a policeman was called,

who played the rôle assigned by the parents and carried Alice off to jail. The experience terrified her, but within a few weeks after her return to school she was again guilty of taking some trifles from the cloak room. This time her parents decided that a more lenient treatment was worth trying. They pampered her and treated her as though she were a highly privileged person. The stealing continued. Finally a physical examination was suggested. It was found that kidney trouble was producing considerable local irritation, resulting in masturbation. Somehow this experience had been connected in the child's mind with theft, perhaps through the conversation of playmates, perhaps through the child's experience, since she had chanced to see and pick up a vanity case on the first occasion. She was given proper physical treatment. The irritation and its consequent practice disappeared, and the stealing was never again observed.

Questions

1. What was the probable effect of the various methods of treatment employed by the parents before they examined the situation?
2. Would a character-training scheme designed to develop attitudes of honesty have been helpful to Alice?

4. WHY BRUCE STUTTERED

Bruce is a problem child in many respects. His most obvious difficulty is that he stutters. This is by no means all of the story. He smeared red paint on the school steps, threw his mother's jewels out of a second story window, drowned a cat, and reported glowing but untrue tales of his success in marks at school. His father has a slight defect in speech which is hardly noticeable, but which many people believe to be, through heredity, the basis for Bruce's problem. The teacher was more inclined to believe that the behavior and the stuttering might all be due to the same cause, namely, a beautiful baby sister who was getting the attention of family and

friends, leaving Bruce jealous. An interview with his mother disclosed the fact that when Bruce was a baby, he had been told frightful and harrowing stories by his nurse. The nurse did this in order to frighten Bruce into behaving himself. The mother felt that the shock from these early experiences might be responsible for Bruce's nervous symptoms. The psychologist who was consulted suggested that the difficulty probably arose because Bruce was left-handed and had been made to learn to write with his right hand. The family doctor felt that the whole situation could be greatly improved by changing diet.

Questions

1. What is stuttering? What happens physically when a person stutters? In what situations does stuttering occur?
2. What evidence is there for each of the suggested causes?

5. EYES AND EARS

Sam Jones was in the first grade and doing very poor work. The teacher was bothered by his case. He seemed to try very hard, and he never caused any disciplinary problems, but he just could not seem to get his work. When she asked him about the problem he shook his head sadly and said he thought he was not as bright as the other boys. After trying a number of things the teacher had the inspiration to take him to a doctor and had him given a physical examination. She found he was extremely near-sighted, so near-sighted, in fact, that the blackboard was always a blur for him—print was read only with great difficulty. When the teacher asked him why he did not tell her about the difficulty he said he thought that was the way it looked to everybody, and that he was just slower at getting things than other boys. Roused by Sam's problem the teacher had all her pupils examined and she found that even among this group of first graders a surprisingly large number were in need of glasses of some kind. Prompt treatment enabled some children to soon be cured of their difficulties so that later the glasses could be given up.

Albert Roberts was sent to the visiting teacher as a disciplinary problem. The teacher said she could not keep his attention. She would be talking to the class about the lesson and Albert was usually gazing out of the window or else trying to annoy some of his companions. The visiting teacher soon gained Albert's confidence and asked him why he did not pay attention in class. "Oh," he said, "I sit in the back of the room and I can hardly hear anything the teacher says." The visiting teacher was surprised, because the teacher spoke very clearly. She took Albert to the doctor and he had his ears examined, and found he was very hard of hearing. Proper attention to this defect immediately removed Albert's inattention.

Questions

1. How general are sensory defects among school children?
2. What are the effects upon the children of allowing them to go for several years with uncared for sensory defects?

C AND D. RACE AND SEX

1. IMMIGRATION

A commission studying the problem of immigration consulted a psychologist. They asked, "Is there any evidence that we can raise the standard of intelligence and character in this country by excluding certain national groups? We understand that there is some evidence that the Italians who wish to enter this country are relatively low grade, compared with the rest of our population. We aren't particularly interested in your opinion, but we would like to know any facts that are available."

Questions

1. What facts might the psychologist have given to the commission?
2. Compare the following bases as methods for obtaining the highest average intelligence level for immigrants:
   (a) Selection of Nordics.

(b) Admission of Jews and Orientals only.
(c) Admission of any person over five feet, eight inches in height.
(d) Admission of any person from a family with an income in the upper quartile of the distribution of incomes of the country from which he comes.
(e) Admission of persons with I. Q.'s of 105 and over, regardless of nationality.

3. How far is character likely to be correlated with intelligence? What other facts should be taken into account in determining admission policies?
4. How would it do to admit only those with I. Q.'s over 110 or under 90, holding, of course, a health and social fitness standard? What groups would be served? What class of persons would be eliminated? Would this be desirable? Why, or why not?
5. How far is the following statement likely to be misleading? What conclusions would you be willing to draw from it, and from appraisal of methods whereby such figures are obtained?

A Summary of Some Results of Racial Tests

a. NEGROES

No. Tested	Test	Results
116	Binet	White 1 yr. superior
71	Binet	IQ 88 (white 95)
55 (College)	Binet	IQ 103 (white 112)
576	Stanford-Binet	IQ 92 (white 102)
71	Stanford-Binet	IQ 83 (white 106)
58	Stanford-Binet	IQ 89 (white 103)
1,272	N. I. T.	IQ 75
1,112	Myers and N. I. T.	White 1½ yrs. superior
247	N. I. T.	IQ 75
449	Pintner-Cunningham, Dearborn	IQ 85
3,000	Haggerty	Overlap 14% to 20%
57	Haggerty	IQ 92
349	I. E. R. Tests	4% exceed Median
177	Otis Primary	White 8.8 P.E. superior
115	Otis Advanced	IQ 55
734	Pressey	IQ 75

a. NEGROES

No. Tested	Test	Results
225	Pressey	Overlap 72%
187	Pressey	White 2 yrs. superior
984	Group Primary	IQ 94 (white 103)
613 (South)	Goodenough Drawing	IQ 77
69 (California)	Goodenough Drawing	IQ 84
19,000	Army	11% exceed Median
8,224	Army	White 1 P. E. superior
2,443	Army	White 3 yrs. superior

b. OTHER RESULTS

Group	Hirsch	Good-enough	Pintner-Keller	Brown	Army % A-B	Miscellaneous
1. Jewish	103-100	106	95	...	...	106
2. Japanese	....	101	...	...	...	114
						46% exceed Median
3. Chinese	...	104	...	...	...	107, 97, 99
						33% exceed Median
4. Scandinavian	102	104	...	103	6%	...
5. English-Scotch	101	100	97	102	19%,13%	...
6. American (U. S.)	98	100	...	...	...	100
7. German	99	100	91	102	10%	...
8. French	...	94	...	75	...	...
9. Slavic	...	94	85	...	...	...
10. Italians	86	88	84	78	2%	88, 84, 83, 82
11. Portuguese	83	94	...	...	...	86, 84
12. Spanish-Mexican	...	88	...	...	...	89, 78
13. American Indian	...	86	...	...	...	69
						6% at age

2. SCHOOL ABILITY

A school superintendent recently issued an order requiring the separation of the colored children from the school which the white children attend. He justified this in part by the need for adaptation to individual differences. He said, "Psychology has shown conclusively that colored children do not have the intelligence to do the same grade of work that white children can do. It is unfair to both groups to make them work together."

Questions

1. What are the findings of intelligence tests applied to negroes? How far do these tests assume equality of opportunity and training? Have they been applied to a sufficiently large number of groups?
2. What is the significance of a different average if there is a large overlapping of the two distribution curves? Would it be possible to find many colored children who could do work superior to that done by certain white children at the low end of the white scale?
3. If the superintendent were really anxious to separate the groups so that those who could do rapid intellectual work could be by themselves and those whose progress is slower could be by themselves, can you suggest a more efficient method?
4. Are there other grounds upon which the superintendent might have better justified his action? For example, is there an instinctive aversion which leads children of one race to be uncomfortable in the close proximity of children of another race? Or are there differences in temperament so marked that the two racial groups should be trained for different positions in life? Or is there evidence the segregation will decrease intermarriage? What is the influence of intermarriage upon the intellectual capacity of the offspring and upon the emotional development of children who must live in our present civilization?

3. COEDUCATION

Two mothers were talking about college plans for their children. "I very much want Louise to go to a girls' school," said Mrs. B. "I think there is something about the atmosphere of a college for girls which produces a finer type of woman than is possible through coeducation."

"We are sending Jim to the State University," said Mrs. M.

"We had thought some of sending him to a man's college, but we decided that the segregation of the sexes was bad."

"Is that so? We don't see that at all. What makes you think so?"

"Well," said Mrs. M., "we feel that boys and girls are going to have to live together in life and that they ought to find out how to get along together in school. They can't get too much practice in the normal sort of relationship."

"I see," said Mrs. B., "but don't you feel that they pay enough attention to each other anyhow? Isn't it better for them to be in an environment where they can give their full attention to work and not be distracted?"

"I suppose it is, but it seems to me that there is less distraction in a coeducational school. There the boys and girls work together on class reports, committees, debates, school papers, glee clubs, and all sorts of things. They take each other for granted. In the segregated schools the contacts of boys and girls are almost entirely social and artificial. They do not resemble much the comradeship which ought to be the basis of normal work and marriage. Each is too acutely conscious of the other."

Mrs. B. interrupted. "That may be, but if Louise were a boy, I am sure we should insist on her going to a segregated school. I read an article not long ago which said that in the men's colleges it was quite all right for men to take courses in literature, poetry, and even domestic science, whereas men who did that in a coeducational school would be despised as effeminate. I think an atmosphere which does not restrict intellectual interests is superior."

Mrs. M. nodded. "It seems to me that you are quite right about that, only I think it's changing, and that the distinction between men's subjects and girls' subjects is growing less and less in any school. The really biggest argument, though, you haven't mentioned at all. That is the way in which, in girls' schools, the girls get crushes on one another, and in perhaps worse fashion than in boys' schools, develop unhealthy emotional attitudes. This speaker on mental hygiene whom we

had at the club said that the chances for wholesome emotional life are much better in coeducational schools."

Questions

1. Do the facts known about the intellectual capacity of the sexes indicate that one sex is less able than the other?
2. Do the facts known about the difference in temperament, interest, and capacity indicate that one sex should study different subjects than those which the other sex studies?
3. What opportunities for the practice with satisfaction of useful attitudes and habits is afforded by coeducation more largely than by segregated schools?
4. What evidence lies behind the assertion that mental hygiene problems are more serious in segregated schools?

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XIII. EMOTIONAL CONDITIONING

1. A SHOW-OFF

Stanley had been an only child, remarkable for his expressive countenance and for his ability to speak clearly in public. He had been the major attraction at the Sunday-school Christmas entertainments ever since he could remember. His teachers liked him. He almost invariably got good marks. As a small boy, he used to advertise his marks plainly. As he grew older he became more sophisticated and disguised his boasting, yet when introduced to new groups, he was likely before long to make passing reference to some scholarship prize which he had won. "Of course," he would hasten to say, "marks mean nothing," and to belittle the amount of study he had really put in. Secretly he felt that he could do better at almost anything than could his associates. There was no small amount of truth in the feeling. He could sing well, act well, dance well, speak well, and write very satisfactorily. Watching a game of tennis, he would find himself amazed by the errors of the players, picturing himself as making the strokes quite perfectly.

Questions

1. How did Stanley develop such an attitude?
2. What is likely to happen to Stanley as he tries to make a place for himself in the world?
3. What kind of adjustment during his school days would have prevented the unfortunate development in his personality? How much contribution might be expected from
   (a) Sectioning.
   (b) Enlarged curriculum.
   (c) Some projects of a real life sort.
   (d) Use of standard tests.

(e) Hazing by other pupils.
(f) Attempts of teachers to belittle his accomplishments.
(g) Stories which exalt the virtue of humility and pointed out the undesirability of egotism and pride.

2. LIKES AND DISLIKES

Emily was one of the seventh grade girls. She was a little large for her age and inclined to be overweight. One fall a new curriculum provided for a class in interpretive dancing. The first day some very simple exercises were enjoyed and the class was enthusiastic about it. A few days later, as the work became more complicated, Emily did not appear. Questioned about it, she reported at first that she had not felt well, but later admitted that she hated the class and did not want to come to it. The teacher was surprised because she had thought Emily was doing unusually good work. Suspecting that something might have caused the other girls to laugh a bit at one of Emily's attempts, she invited Emily down at a free period to receive some special help in private. Emily came, and the teacher helped her learn several new steps, which later Emily had an opportunity to demonstrate to the rest of the class, assisting the teacher.

This is a true story, and Emily is to-day a professional stage dancer, winning unusual recognition in her profession.

Questions

1. Did Emily have an inborn liking for dancing? Did she have an inborn talent?
2. Suggest a procedure which would have created in Emily an aversion for dancing such that she would never have attempted it, could she get out of it.
3. Account for Emily's sensitiveness. Why would she be more apt to be upset by an amused glance than other members of the group? Under what conditions are people in general apt to be most sensitive?

4. Do you think that other forms of sensitiveness can be cured as Emily's was? Illustrate.
5. Are other forms of artistic achievement as dependent upon environmental encouragement as was Emily's success? How important would be the factors of group approval and of heredity in the case of the Bach family?

3. DEPENDENCE

Mary Ellen was a very attractive college girl. Everyone except her roommate was fond of her, while Mary Ellen was devoted to her roommate. It made little difference who the roommate was. One after another she chose, becoming sadly dependent upon each. She would ask her roommate what courses were best to take; she turned to her roommate to find out what invitations she ought to accept; she agreed with anything her roommate suggested. She would not buy clothes unless her roommate were along to help her to choose them. Mary Ellen's friends believed that this attitude was largely her mother's fault. Her mother was a very domineering person who had always planned out just what Mary Ellen should do. In the letters that the mother wrote, she continued to attend to details of Mary Ellen's life.

Questions

1. Do you think this a probable explanation? Can it be explained in terms of learning?
2. What kind of a vocational adjustment would you advise Mary Ellen to make? Would she make a good wife?
3. What kind of pre-school training is involved in the development of proper independence? What is the best policy at adolescence?

4. ABOUT A GOOD BOY

Carl is a graduate student in his middle thirties, with an excellent background of experience. He gives an impression of considerable ability. His more intimate friends notice his

constant craving for assurance from friends that his public performances are well done, his extreme anxiety when preparing an essay or appearing in public, his tendency to escape from such appearances when possible, and his need for someone upon whom he can rely to help him with whatever he is doing. His interests are apt to run into unusual channels where he can succeed with less competition.

Careful study of the case seems to indicate that some of the following facts may be relevant. Apparently up to the age of seven, he was a normal, healthy boy, keen on books, excelling in school. He was brought up as an only child in a small New England town, and perhaps given too much shelter. At seven he had a serious accident to his left hand, requiring an operation which left it awkward and numb for several years. A cousin a year older, more efficient and daring, less safely brought up, left Carl feeling ashamed and incompetent. Carl was taught not to fight, and when the other boys teased him, he ran home in fear. His injured hand made it possible for him to avoid developing manual skills. He let his father take care of any practical repairs around the house. When ten years old, he moved to a larger town. The child's family found themselves in financial difficulty. He felt that this meant social inferiority also. In the new school there was an element of tougher boys who regarded him as a "pet" of the teacher, who was much disliked. Carl did find certain satisfaction in the boy choir. One of his happiest experiences was five months on a Vermont farm. He returned there often, rather enjoying its relative independence. During his childhood there came a baby sister, several other experiences of moving, a need for glasses which handicapped him in other games, and a chance, which he very much enjoyed, to take piano lessons.

In high school Carl excelled in school studies and graduated first in his class, but missed all extra-curricular activities. He looked up very much to one older student, who tried to interest Carl in tennis and billiards with little success. Carl did not dance, and felt that he was uninteresting to most young

people of his own age. He developed an enjoyment of classic literature and music. He kept up nominal relationship with the church young people's society, but found most satisfaction in lonely practice on the pipe organ.

In college he felt again his inferiority in athletics, and added to that, a strong feeling that he could not speak and write as ably as could other students. Financial circumstances were improved, but he practiced more economy than was necessary and did very little remunerative work. It would be a mistake to think of him as a "grind." He studied with enthusiasm, read widely, argued and discussed with the like-minded, did social service teaching, cultivated foreign students, and others providing they were not too far from his economic level, and worked for religious causes, such as conferences, temperance, and foreign missions, with nearly as much tact as inventiveness. In the Fall rush he worked as a salesman in the college store, but in the main he met college expenses by winning fairly large scholarships. Self-doubt kept him back from tutoring work for which he was well equipped, until he was sought out. Similarly the distrust of his ability to write was not shaken by high grades in required composition, nor by the immediate acceptance of the first essay he sent to the college literary magazine. The social side of college he touched only by extending hospitality at home to his circle of friends. One of these became the most intimate friend he has, and to him he transferred the attitude of dependence built up previously.

Nevertheless there was progress in adjustment. Volunteering for foreign missions became a unifying ideal, and led to facing these inferiority nightmares with courage, and to venturing experiments to annul them. The award of Phi Beta Kappa in the Junior year gave standing and more confidence. It was seen to be an obligation, not an extravagance, to buy an athletic outfit, so he joined the cross-country squad. Humor and sociability were essential, so he ventured out on his father's jokes, and discovered social enjoyment. A friend taught him some dances in his Senior year, and he suddenly

discovered girls. Formerly his friendships with womankind had all been ultra-Platonic, and with people much older than himself. The acquisition of these new social tools brought new behavior patterns in the emotional life, and at the end of the college epoch the sense of social inferiority had greatly lessened in many directions. He realized that he could be interesting and could be interested, and that he did not need to seek compensation in some unrelated world of his own. Lack on the athletic side was not so keenly felt, the financial side had been improved and, moreover, did not seem so important. Fears of responsibility in leadership were keen, mechanical awkwardness was felt even more because of the family's new automobile which might need repair, experience gained in teaching classes and speaking to small young people's groups had not removed the panic reaction at the thought of wider public speaking; in fact, in the next years this stage was held to for fear of the next step.

In graduate school he turned to one of his college friends and later to two successive roommates as persons who must help him make all his decisions. He dropped his interest in dancing and in girls, although he felt that the fact that he had so little interest in the opposite sex was a symptom of his lack of normality. He developed during these years a great interest in private mystical prayer. Each small success in his work, he seized upon and asked all his friends whether that indicated that he had sufficient ability to amount to something in the world. He never was quite convinced. When a good idea came to him, he elaborated upon it in conversation. He pictured himself making very great achievements with it, but he substituted this sort of day-dream for the actual intermediate steps. In the end he was apt to give up the project with a feeling that his education had been so mismanaged that it was hopeless for him to attempt it.

Questions

1. What seems to be Carl's principal adjustment problem? Give reason for your diagnosis.

2. At what points in his career might such difficulty have been prevented?

5. WOOL-GATHERING

There had been a marked drop in the quality of Harriet's class work. During her Freshman year she had done excellent work. Returning for her Sophomore year, she showed far less interest in study. She seemed depressed, melancholy, and sad. She couldn't concentrate. She would sit with a book in front of her and look at it for minutes at a time without the slightest notion of what was on the page of the book. Her friends tried to find out what was the matter, but met with no success. She insisted that there was nothing the matter, or at least, if there was, she didn't know what it could be.

At the middle of the year the college acquired the services of a psychologist as a personal consultant. Harriet's case, among others, was referred to him. Upon investigation, he found that Harriet was really very much worried lest her father should leave home. Harriet's maternal grandmother had come to live with the family during the past summer, and had proven very annoying to the father. To have her father so upset was almost unbearable to Harriet. The Personnel Officer took the matter up with the family and arrangements were made for the grandmother to stay with some other relatives. This brought peace into the home situation, and Harriet's emotional energy was released for attention to her work. Distinct improvement followed.

Questions

1. Why did this home situation upset Harriet so much?
2. Was the cause of the difficulty removed, or was trouble merely postponed? How can one be certain about the permanence of cures?
3. Is mind-wandering usually a result of emotional conflict? Illustrate.
4. Keep a sheet of paper on which you note down every time

your mind wanders from an assigned reading task, just the topic to which it turns. Is there any pattern revealed?

6. TURN BACKWARD

A little girl of two with a baby brother had been rather cross during the day. Running from one room to the next, she slipped on the polished floor and fell down. She was more annoyed than hurt but lay there several minutes, crying "I can't get up! I can't get up!" When her parents failed to take this protest very seriously, she scrambled to her hands and knees and then with a show of effort, slid back down full length on the floor. "I can't get up!" she wailed, "I'm too little." The mother went ahead with her business, and after ignoring the little girl for a few minutes, suggested in an offhand way that it would be a good thing for the little girl to sit down and take off her own shoes and stockings and prepare for her evening bath. The little girl did this and was commended for being such a big girl and able to undress herself.

Questions

1. What mechanism of emotional adjustment is here represented? Can you suggest other examples in children? Can you find examples in adult behavior?
2. Is it probable that a baby brother who necessarily took a good bit of the mother's attention had any influence in the development of this attitude? Why?
3. What did the child learn as a result of this experience? To what was annoyance and satisfaction attached? What would you predict as likely to happen on future occasions when the child finds the world upset and annoying?
4. A popular song of recent years contained these words:

"When you've lost in the game
Of gold and fame
And you're weary of fighting alone,

When the heart aches, I know,
Then the soul longs to go
Down the road to Home Sweet Home."

Is this a similar mechanism?

7. PROJECTION

Hugh was very much troubled. He was having to miss school sessions. He feared he might have to drop out entirely. He lived out on the edge of the village on a small farm. His father had never been very industrious and had little interest in the family. A few months ago the father had deserted after some sort of home quarrel. Hugh's mother was not well. Hugh and a hired man were trying to run the farm. Hugh was ambitious and wanted to get ahead and amount to something in the world. He said, "I don't think it's any use to try. It seems like things are always against me. Last winter I had to be out two months on account of typhoid, and then when I did come back the classes were so far ahead that I couldn't catch up, and the teachers wouldn't explain. Now Father shoves all this trouble on me. Mother won't let me sell the farm, so I've got to give up all my plans. My uncle won't help—he pretends he can't. They don't any of them want me to have a chance."

Questions

1. What attitude was Hugh taking toward his difficulty? Was this to be expected? Is it desirable?
2. What change in the situation would be best if it could be worked out? How far would the change have to be made in Hugh?
3. How would you go about improving the situation?

8. OUT FROM UNDER

Kenneth had always been more or less of a problem to his parents. He grew rapidly, both in body and mind, but par-

ticularly in body. He could get reasonably good marks in school without working, and spent most of his energy in annoying the teacher and the other children. On the playground he was rather a bully and enjoyed dominating the smaller boys. Some of his time he spent hanging around the town pool rooms. One summer he went out to work with a construction gang, and seemed to be very happy. As he went on through the later years of high school, the situation became worse. His parents felt that they must take some action. They laid down a series of restrictions requiring him to spend most of the evenings at home. When he went somewhere, they checked up on him to see that he had done what he said. Kenneth grew rebellious and defiant, and they found it necessary to exercise even more restriction. One day he slipped away, leaving a note saying he was going out West to work in the wheat fields. He drifted around the country for two or three years, spent some time in the Navy, eventually found a good job as a minor executive in an industrial plant, and progressed to a high position.

Questions

1. What adjustment might the school have made in the case of Kenneth?
2. What adjustment should the parents have made? Is increased freedom a good treatment for an abuse of existing freedom?
3. How do you account for the settling-down process which led to the relative success in Kenneth's life?

9. BLUFFER

Jim was a tall, sixteen-year-old boy with little ability in any line except football. Even there, he played an energetic but not very brilliant game. Yet he carried himself with a swagger of self-confidence. He tried to boss the other players and even the coach. When the teacher in class made a statement that struck his fancy, he would rise with a sophisticated

air and say, "I wish you would give us some examples of that, please."

He had recently come to this school from another, and he told often of the achievements which he had made in the past school experience. He told how high a position his father held in the organization for which he worked. Failing in three out of four of his Freshman subjects, Jim assumed a superior air and said he was going to a larger and more up-to-date school. He dropped out for two years but came back to enter the Sophomore class, still carrying his old airs.

Questions

1. What is the major clue to the understanding of Jim's behavior?
2. In the light of this, does he need more praise or more "taking down"?
3. Does the following quotation from a daily newspaper column help?

"He bandied scorn to get immune from scorn,
And made an insolence of his timidity.
Never before was soul so much forlorn,
Mutating warmth that must appear frigidity.
In braggadocio crude and unalloyed
He worked, that he and we might be convinced
His breast held genius where was only void.
Though none was fooled, each time he failed he winced.

And whom he feared he shunned; whom he admired
He momently insulted; whom he loved
He ground beneath his boot-heels. He aspired
To be them all for them he most approved.
So if his manner call you knave or worse,
Thank him instead of giving back the curse."

—Rufus Terral.

4. What guidance would you give to Jim in planning his life?

10. INFERIORITY COMPLEX

Aaron is eleven years old and in high seventh grade. His I. Q. in a group test is 128. His father is principal of the high school. His mother is now teaching in one of the elementary schools. Aaron was the first child, walked at thirteen months, and talked at twenty-five months. At the age of five, he asked why things always go down and not up. His mother gave the impression from this that it was fortunate for Newton that he was born when he was. The child had a severe illness soon after starting in school, and has not been in good physical health since. He reads a great deal. Because of his physical condition, he does not do well in athletics, and is always left off the team by the other boys. The specific complaint on which he was brought was that he had an "inferiority complex." He continues to get about "B" in his school work, and his family scold him because he does not do as well as he should.

Questions

1. What is an "inferiority complex"? Can a "complex" be conscious?
2. As far as you can judge from this description, what items in the picture most need to be changed?
3. What factors in experience are most commonly associated with feelings of inferiority? Why is it that some persons of low ability are untroubled by such feelings?
4. What is the educational effect of competition for grades and honors?

11. BLUES

Jane, a high school Junior, was having the blues. She had not been invited to a party because of a trifling quarrel over something which she felt was not her own fault. Perhaps because she was thinking so much about the party, she had twice awakened suddenly to realize that she had been called on to recite, but each time had had to ask to have the question

repeated. This had led to a reprimand before the class. Caroline, her best friend, understood the trouble and wrote her a note. "Forget it, Jane. It won't make any difference in a hundred years anyhow."

An understanding teacher invited Jane to come up and talk with her after class. Jane, of course, would have perished rather than tell what was really the trouble, but she just said that she felt sort of blue and couldn't seem to concentrate. The teacher said, "Well, Jane, when you get something like this in your system, the best thing to do is to get off by yourself somewhere and just cry it out. Get it out of your system, and then you will find that you can pay attention to your work again, and it will be all settled."

Questions

1. Do high school students frequently get into such attitudes, or is life for them more apt to be a gay and careless affair? Can it be both? Can both appear to be true in the same person? How? Why?
2. From a psychological point of view, which advice, that of Caroline or that of the teacher, would be more likely to lead to development of a desirable emotional life? Can you suggest some advice that would be better than either?

12. REACHING MARY

Little Mary seemed to be a very timid child. She was always coming late to kindergarten and never giving any excuses for it. When she came in she would go immediately to a chair in the corner and get into the corner as far as possible, staying there all through the morning. The teacher tried to have her join in the activities with the other children, but she would always sink down farther in her chair and would never say a word.

After two weeks of patient trying on the teacher's part to get Mary interested in something, and failing, the teacher called at Mary's home. Mrs. Mahoney was an ignorant, stub-

born Irish woman. She had four children, Mary being next to the youngest. All she knew was work—and she certainly made all of her children work for, as she put it, "My children are goin' to be somebody when they grow up because they're working now, so they can be strong and healthy. No play for them any time." Mary's father was dead, but had been a very strong drinker. He had a violent temper and a vicious character which made his children extremely afraid of him—running off when he came into the house. Little Mary was often beaten by her mother for neglecting some of her many duties. The teacher tried to tell Mrs. Mahoney of Mary's actions in school and of her tardiness each morning. But Mrs. Mahoney would not listen "to such nonsense" and the teacher had to leave after a very unsatisfactory interview.

At that time there was no visiting teaching in the school, but there was a school nurse. After the teacher had told her of Mary, she tried to talk with Mary in and out of school. There was one thing Mary did do, and that was to go out on the playground with the other children, but she would never play—just watch. After several attempts to talk with Mary and getting no results she gave it up, leaving the problem to the teacher.

About a month later a visiting teacher came to the school to work for half a year. At once Mary's teacher took her problem to the visiting teacher, who was very small of stature and who had an unassuming, pleasing personality.

The next morning the visiting teacher came to the kindergarten room, saw Mary sitting as usual in the corner, and took a chair, sitting down right near Mary, not saying a word. Mary had never seen her before but she seemed to be very indifferent toward her. As time went on and the visiting teacher didn't say or do anything, Mary began gazing at her (as some children are inclined to do). There must have been something about the teacher that attracted Mary for she began to move her chair nearer. Before the morning was over the visiting teacher was talking with Mary, although Mary didn't say anything to her. The next morning the teacher came again

and Mary seemed glad to see her. As time went on the teacher had Mary's confidence.

One day after coming in from the playground the visiting teacher suggested that Mary join in the games with the other children. At first Mary held back and seemed frightened at the idea, but when the teacher told her that she would go too, Mary went at once joyfully and willingly. From that day on there was improvement, and Mary's own teacher was so pleased she gave Mary opportunities for self-expression, which encouraged the girl a great deal. The teacher also helped the child by giving red stars for promptness which immediately resulted in Mary being on time every morning.

Questions

1. Suggest several instances which may have formed Mary's habitual response to other people.
2. How might the mother be most successfully led to a change in attitude? What are the things which appear to matter most to her?

13. INSIGHT

Herbert was a distinct problem for Miss Palmer. He was continually late in getting in his assignments, he frequently was found at the bottom of the harmless little jokes, and his interest in the subject didn't seem to be very enthusiastic. In spite of it all, however, he was so nice that she could not help but like him. He was very apologetic when caught in wrongdoing and always promised to do better. Finally, however, she decided to talk over her problem with Miss Baker, whom she admired immensely. As far as Miss Palmer was concerned, Miss Baker was the perfect teacher after whom she tried to model her own teaching.

Miss Baker knew all about Herbert. She had had him the semester before and she said it hadn't taken her long to find out what sort of fellow he really was. His smiling face was a cloak to cover his delinquent intentions. She was pretty sure

that he was to blame for certain petty thieveries that had been going on the previous semester, although she had never been able to prove it. She had also heard certain stories about the way he acted when he was out with a group of boys.

From that time on Miss Palmer found her attitude changing. Little things that heretofore had seemed rather cute and enjoyable now seemed very distasteful. She thought she detected a rather sly expression underneath his seemingly frank smile, and whenever trouble occurred in the room, it always seemed that Herbert was connected with it in some way or other.

Questions

1. How do you explain the change in Miss Palmer's attitude?
2. Was it a desirable change? What part did reason play?
3. What should a teacher do in a situation of that kind?

14. A NEW BOY—OH, DEAR!

Miss Chase found a new boy in her fourth grade class this Monday morning. The instant she saw him, she knew that he was likely to cause trouble. He was not well dressed, and his eyes, set too close together, had a furtive look. He was over age and larger than any other boy in the room. She thought of something she had heard in normal school on seating troublesome pupils. Was it that they should be placed in front where the teacher could keep a close eye on them, or in back where their antics would not disturb other pupils? She resolved that, in any case, she would make him toe the mark until he knew that she was master in this room.

Questions

1. How far do you think Miss Chase's impressions of the new boy were justified? How do you account for it?
2. What would be the consequences in class-room situations of the readiness which Miss Chase had built up in these few moments?

3. Did the boy have any already established attitudes toward this teacher? Where did they come from?
4. How might the teacher deal with the boy in such a way as to help him revise these first attitudes, where necessary, in the interests of a greater coöperation?

15. STRAWS

It was 4:30 on Friday afternoon. The teacher had planned to go home, but a threatened storm made it necessary for her to give up her plans. She sat with a large stack of papers in front of her, trying to key herself up to work at them. A boy came in the door and, whistling gayly, went over to his desk to find a book.

"Fred, stop that whistling," snapped the teacher. "What do you want? Get it quickly and get out."

Fred gathered up his books and made a hasty exit. Once outside, he breathed a sigh of relief, but his thoughts about the teacher are better unrecorded.

Questions

1. How do you account for the teacher's response?
2. Compare the teacher's behavior with that of a man who, according to the story, was carrying an advertising placard for a neighborhood tailor shop. It was a rainy day, and the man walked disconsolately, the water slushing through the holes in his shoes. In the gutter he saw something glittering and went over to investigate. Picking it up, he could scarcely believe his eyes. It was a $20 gold piece. He straightened up, marched back to the owner of the shop which he had been advertising, took off his sandwich placards, and threw them at the boss. He strode happily to a cheap lunch counter and ordered a huge meal. The waiter was suspicious. "Let's see your money," he asked. The man proudly laid the $20 gold piece on the counter. At the same instant he was shoved sharply, turned to see his assailant, turned back to the counter, and his money

was gone. "Hurry up," said the waiter, "let's see your money." The man protested that he had already laid it there and demanded its return. A fight ensued, and when the man came to, he found himself lying in the gutter. His clothes were soaking wet and muddy, his head ached terrifically, he was hungry, his money was gone, his fine, big meal was gone, and his job was gone. As he slowly stumbled to his feet, a dapper young minister emerged from a nearby mission. The minister may have been planning to attend a wedding, for he was dressed in the latest fashion and had a flower in his buttonhole. Just beyond the unfortunate bum, the young man bent over to fasten his spats. The bum lounged up behind him and gave him a terrific kick, sending him sprawling into the street. He arose, protesting vehemently. The bum lounged off down the street. "Aw," said he, "you're always buttonin' your spats."

3. List some of the circumstances which bring about such a situation in an educator's job? Do they ever work positively?

16. FEAR—FAILURE

Ellen was afraid she might fail. She was seldom near the failing mark, but she was constantly worried lest she should make a low score in some course. For a time she found herself quite unable to study or even to sleep. She said she was worried sick over the possibility of flunking in an unusually difficult course. Given a word association test, Ellen showed unusual difficulty in finding a response to the word "failure." She flushed, thought a while, then said, "I can't think of anything."

The teacher giving the test said, "Tell me anything that comes into your mind."

Ellen said, "Aunt Mary."

Other unusual responses in the test were "school—succeed," "fear—failure," "worry—school," "love—Aunt Mary," "father —no response."

Ellen had been left an orphan when her father deserted after her mother's death. She had been cared for by her Aunt Mary, a relatively uneducated woman with high ambitions for Ellen's success.

Questions

1. How would you explain Ellen's school attitude?
2. What might be done to improve her peace of mind in relation to her school work?

17. ADVICE TO IMAGINARY FAILURES

A student reported to his adviser that he couldn't sleep. He didn't feel that he was making good in college. He was convinced that he was a failure, although his teachers and the persons for whom he did some part-time work believed that things were going very well. He felt that people didn't like him, that he could never be popular. He said he tried hard, but that he didn't have it in him. His friends told rather a different story. They thought of him as one of the more popular persons in his class. He had been elected to certain offices.

In addition to his other troubles, he wasn't at all sure that he wanted to go into the profession for which he was preparing, and he detested the town in which the college was located. His mother's solicitous letters suggested coming back home for a rest.

Questions

1. What reasons appeal to you as possibly accounting for his difficulty?
2. Four different doctors who were consulted gave the following types of advice:
   (a) "You are run down physically. These fears and worries will disappear if you will build up your strength. You aren't getting enough exercise. Change to a more expensive boarding house where you will get better food. Stop eating ice cream between meals. Get to

bed at ten o'clock every night for two weeks, then come back and you will tell a different story."

(b) Dr. B. was a vocational counselor. He recognized at once the symptoms of a person who has not found a satisfactory vocational adjustment. He said, "I've seen lots of fellows in just your case. They hadn't found the thing they wanted to do, and all these other symptoms developed as a consequence of this main problem. Come down and I'll give you some tests, and we will try to make arrangements for you to try out a rather wide variety of jobs in order to find the lines in which you are most likely to be interested."

(c) Dr. C. said, "Every symptom has its cause. You are getting discouraged in a situation which ought not to develop discouragement in a normal person. There must be some satisfaction in it for you. Let us see if we can find out what you are getting out of it."

(d) Dr. D. listened to the story, nodded briskly, then laughed. "Sheer imagination," he said as he slapped the young man on the back. "Buck up! Keep a stiff upper lip. Say to yourself, 'I can succeed. I am winning friends and popularity. I am getting ahead.' Forget your troubles and go to work."

Which of these would be most likely to help the young man? Why? Indicate the probable consequences of each of the other approaches.

3. Later, after the young man had committed suicide, it became apparent that, since his father's death the boy and his mother had been almost inseparable. Does this add any light?

18. EXAMINATION

Betty Brown always did excellent work in all subjects. She prepared her assignments perfectly, was interested in her class work, did many things which were not required, but when

examinations came, she always failed miserably. However, she was promoted from year to year because the teachers always felt that she really knew the material. Evidently they were justified, for she continued to go through the grades and show the same high caliber of class-room achievement. Her examination difficulty, however, did not get better. Instead of outgrowing it as her early teachers thought she would, she began to get worse, and finally became so extreme that whenever the class had an examination, Betty actually was sick and had to be excused. At this point, she was referred to the visiting teacher.

The visiting teacher found that she was the youngest of three children. She came from a professional home. Her parents were both very bright and the two older children had both made very superior records in school. On visiting the home, she found that Betty was not considered as bright as the other children and was compared unfavorably with them. She was inclined to be somewhat clumsy and because of this, she sometimes broke dishes or disturbed her father, for which she was severely reproved.

Questions

1. How do you explain Betty's attitude toward examinations?
2. Is there any truth in the statement that many people cannot do themselves justice in examinations?
3. How would you go about it to improve conditions for Betty?

19. LOVE 'EM AND LEAVE 'EM ALONE

"M. M. (No. 8) was a girl of nine when I saw her in March, 1920. At that time she was repeating the first grade and not making much progress even on the second trial. She was born in the mountainous section of North Carolina, and lived there till the death of both parents from influenza in 1918, when she came to an aunt in Baltimore. Between the ages of

six and eight, she had attended country school irregularly, but apparently had not picked up enough to help her much in the first-grade work of a city school. Her home environment was excellent so far as living arrangements were concerned. She was the only child in the home of an aunt in comfortable circumstances. The aunt was not only kind to her, but was so anxious to compensate for the inferior advantages of the past that she was constantly pushing and prodding M. M. into new activities—speaking pieces in Sunday-school, joining children's parties, and taking a front seat in situations that almost stampeded the child's social resources. In school the teachers said that M. M. was dull and had a tendency to be sullen and obstinate when criticized. If pressed to some task, she would bury her head on her desk in tears.

"EXAMINATION:

"M. M. was a painfully shy little girl, ruddy and well developed. She was about twice the size of her classmates and when she got up to recite, she was so self-conscious that the children were obviously amused. Even while we were talking quietly in a room by ourselves, she hung her head in embarrassment, and her answers to questions were scarcely audible. According to the Binet-Simon tests, she had a mental age of seven years plus, but one felt reasonably sure that the difference of two years between her actual age and tested age was to be accounted for by the psychobiological reactions of sensitiveness and fear described above.

"PROCESS OF MODIFICATION

"The aunt was seen, and her coöperation readily elicited. It was suggested that M. M. be left to herself so far as artificial attempts to promote initiative were concerned; that encouragement and as little anxious watching as possible be substituted by aunt and teacher for continuous prodding of the child to a pace incompatible with her feelings of satisfaction and enjoyment. The plan worked well. Gradually she began of her own accord to reach out after people and things. She be-

gan to melt into the class group, to get pleasure out of working with someone else, and to play with other children for the fun of it. At the same time her shyness disappeared. She became friendly with the teacher, seeking her out with all sorts of questions. The sullenness, obstinacy, and crying spells have long since ceased to exist. In January, 1921, M. M. made the second grade, and in June, 1921, she passed easily into the third grade. Here again the whole appearance of this child has changed. She is frank and open in manner, talking freely with the ordinary chatter of her age. On entering the classroom, one sees her halfway out of her seat, bursting to volunteer in some exercise, when a year ago she almost sank to the floor with confusion over a simple question."

The Elementary School and the Individual Child, by Esther Loring Richards, M.D., p. 7. (Reprint of Nat. Comm. for Mental Hygiene.)

Questions

1. Could such a change take place in a person after reaching adult years? What evidence is there?
2. Are intelligence test results apt to be invalidated among young children by the things which hindered M. M.?

20. HELPING THE HYPOCHONDRIAC

"Fanny B. illustrates in what a satisfactory way an early psychoneurotic condition may be cleared up. Fanny was a bright little Jewish girl who graduated from elementary school at twelve and a half years. She had been in high school but two months when presented for examination at the request of a physical training teacher to whom she complained that she became dizzy in large places and so could not do gymnasium work. She was an imaginative, conscientious child who had skipped grades perhaps more than was good for her, and as she was extremely anxious for high marks, she probably spent time in study that might better have been given to

recreation. Her complaint to the psychiatrist was of a weak feeling and palpitation, in addition to fear of large places.

An attempt to trace back these symptoms to their inception brought to light the fact that the child, from her earliest recollections, had had a morbid interest in death, which was accentuated when she was six by neighborhood excitement over tales of Jack the Ripper. Somewhat later, Fanny was terror-stricken when in a car accident where there was a panic. Long afterwards, when she thought about it, as she frequently did, the memory was so vivid that she would sometimes touch familiar objects in the house in order to convince herself that she was safe at home.

"Some months after the accident, she was impressed by a conversation that she overheard regarding the supposed return of a person who had died who was asked what the other world was like. It was not long after this conversation that Fanny went to the library one warm September day and became deeply engrossed in reading 'The Man Without a Country.' She was utterly absorbed and emotionally stirred by the story, especially when she reached the part where the man comes to die and kisses the American flag. She looked up from her book, tense, with rapidly beating heart, and the room seemed to be going round and round. She managed to get home, but continued to have nearly every evening recurrence of what she came to call 'palpitation,' as this diagnosis was made at two dispensaries to which her mother took her.

"Medicine did not relieve her, and the child's nervousness increased, until she did not want to pass by a park or any large place, still less to enter one. She decided that she had serious heart trouble, and although interested in writing what she called 'health poems', she looked on herself as a good deal of an invalid who in all probability would not live long. Formerly active and a leader among her friends, she was fast centering her interests on her physical symptoms and brooding over an untimely end.

"Physical examination failed to show a basis for her fears. There was no disease of the heart, but the rate was easily

affected by her emotions. Fanny readily accepted the reassurance given that her heart was sound and showed immediate relief. She was intelligent enough to grasp the mechanism of her difficulty after it had been explained to her (the fact came out during one interview that she always thought of heaven as a large place, which seemed to account for the basis of her morbid fears) and she stated spontaneously, 'I see. It's just a thought, a fear; it doesn't really exist.' Improvement in all respects was shown at once and Fanny realized this herself, for she wrote a month later: 'Words cannot express how grateful I am to you for helping me find out what was the trouble with me. I find that I do better work in my lessons since I feel better. I do not feel as bad in the assembly as I used to.' This case has been followed for three years, but there has been no further difficulty and there is reason to believe that a condition of chronic invalidism on a psychogenic basis has been averted."

The Application of Psychiatry to High-School Problems, by Anne T. Bingham, M.D., p. 8. (Reprint of Nat. Comm. for Mental Hygiene.)

Questions

1. What other forms of invalidism rest upon a similar basis?
2. What types of compensation is a person likely to make for such inadequacy?
3. Are such fears ever existent without being admitted by the victim? How might one be most likely to discover them?

21. POOR MOTHER

Edwin is a bright twelve-year-old boy. His mother is a chronic invalid. Medical examinations reveal nothing wrong with her, but she flies into a rage if anyone says this to her. There is a small brother, James, who, the mother claims, is the dearest, cutest thing in the world. For the mother's health the family recently moved from the city out to a small town.

Edwin's mother objected to the other boys in the neighborhood. She wanted Edwin and James to play at home in the house, but if they made the least noise, she would have a fit of temper and declare that they wanted her to die. She would stay in bed for days.

At school the boys appreciated Edwin's humor, his athletic ability, good sportmanship, but particularly his bright ideas for annoying teachers. He acquired such a reputation at school that he was blamed for things he really hadn't done. Whenever quizzes were given, Edwin stood at or very near the top of his class, yet he never seemed to pay attention to the things the teacher was doing. The supervising principal was appealed to. She singled Edwin out to help her on special errands and responsibilities. She enjoyed his polite companionableness. As they became better acquainted, he told her how glad he was to get out of his home, how he hated school because he didn't ever learn anything new, how he'd like to belong to an athletic team and play a musical instrument in a jazz orchestra. A physical examination indicated hyperthyroid.

Questions

1. What do you think was the trouble with the mother?
2. How can the situation be improved for Edwin?
3. Which of these symptoms would probably change with adjustment of this thyroid condition? (See cases in Section X, Influence of Physiological Factors.)

22. PATTERN

Selma feared that she was on the verge of a nervous breakdown. She couldn't concentrate. She would find that ten or fifteen minutes would pass in class and she would not have the slightest idea of what had happened. Severe headaches were occurring frequently. She went to the school doctor and was pronounced physically sound. The headaches seemed to have no basis in any fact which he could discover. He did find that she was extremely nervous. She jumped violently if

anything came up suddenly. She consulted a psychologist. After she had told her tale of woe, the psychologist asked, "Have you ever had such difficulties before?"

"Yes," said Selma, "that's why I'm so worried now. I always was a nervous child and I have had three rather serious breakdowns."

"Tell me about them."

"Well, the first one occurred during the summer when I was fifteen. It was in August, and we were just making plans to return to the city for school. I had worked so hard the previous year that apparently the summer hadn't rested me up, and the thought of going back to school again was just too much for me. I was out of school almost a month. Then the next one was three years later and was during the Christmas vacation. I had these terrible headaches."

"What started off this one?" the psychologist asked.

"I don't know," said Selma. "I always thought it was having the flu and going to work too soon afterward."

"When did you have the flu?"

"The last part of the summer. The third one was when I was teaching at Blank. I was offered a better position over in a nearby city. I just couldn't make up my mind whether to take it or not. I worried over that job until I was so sick I had to quit the job I had and go to a sanitarium."

Further discussion pointed out the improbability that the real cause had been located in any of these instances, although Selma found herself quite unable to think of anything else which might have been responsible. As she left, the psychologist made a final suggestion that people's behavior was likely to run in patterns, and if she could find something that was mixed up in every one of these instances, that would probably be the real root of the trouble at the present time. A few days later Selma returned to explain that she had found it. It occurred to her just as she was going to sleep one night. The gist of each situation was this: she had found herself falling in love with an older person, a man already married. Her childhood had been very unhappy, with constant quarrel-

ing in the home. She and her sister resolved never to marry. As a consequence, they had paid very little attention to boys. Yet she found herself getting very wrapped up in these older men. She had felt very ashamed of herself, but had not thought that this had had anything to do with the breakdowns. A satisfactory orientation with reference to this problem did serve, however, to dispel the present symptoms.

Questions

1. Can you find in your observation any persons who have reacted with a pattern of behavior whenever they got into difficulty? Have the same sort of symptoms recurred? Do you know anyone, for instance, who always wants to move away whenever a problem arises? What other patterns can you discover or suggest?
2. What difficulties would the discovery of the cause make in a situation like this? Would it cure the difficulty?
3. What difference would it make whether Selma were led to discover this for herself or whether she were told it by the analyst?
4. How far was Pope, in his "Moral Essays," correct in saying:

   "Search then, the ruling passion; there alone
   The wild are constant, and the foolish known,
   The fool consistent, and the false confest,
   This clue, once found, unravels all the rest."
5. What do you think of the following commandments for dealing with troublesome cases? Suggest a case in which each might apply to advantage.

   I. Thou shalt not bow down to symptoms, nor deal with them in isolation.

   II. Thou shalt not judge a child's need by the trouble he causes.

   III. Thou shalt not blame heredity.

   IV. Thou shalt not blame the environment in general.

   V. Thou shalt not cast him out.

   VI. Thou shalt not take over from the child any of his

own rightful responsibility for determining his own conduct and the consequences thereof.

VII. Thou shalt guard thyself from strong emotional entanglements, positive or negative.

VIII. Thou shalt cherish a sense of humor which steadfastly refuses to be shocked, depressed or indignant.

IX. Thou shalt have no universal remedies.

X. Thou shalt not expect miracles.

23. SHOCKED

Leona was a sensitive, high-strung, artistic, idealistic girl. She had been an only child and had been protected against those bits of worldly knowledge which her playmates passed on from one to another. At the proper time, Leona's mother told her what she deemed important with reference to the way in which life begins. Leona was shocked. She couldn't eat any supper. She was really sick in bed for two days. The whole experience seemed to her beastly and dreadful. Leona was distinctly above the average in intelligence and was very bright. She had many boy friends, and in the later years of high school and college, some of them tried to make love to her. As soon as any affair began to get that serious, she immediately broke it off. She enjoyed her boy friends, but any suggestion of petting repulsed her. She is now thirty years of age, unmarried, and unlikely to be married. Sometimes she finds herself very depressed over the situation. At other times she feels that there is so much that is fine and beautiful in life that she can live for that the absence of marriage is not a serious factor.

Questions

1. How could the child have been prevented from forming the attitudes which resulted so unfortunately?
2. Is it probable that she would have been happy if married?
3. What is meant by sublimation? Can it be sought directly?

24. CRUSHES

Ruth, in her second year at college, was regarded by her friends as quite dreamy and a little queer. She had odd moods. Sometimes she would seem to worship her friends. At other times she appeared to detest the same persons. She developed a violent crush on the woman who was her English teacher. At first the teacher was flattered by the devotion of this very able girl, but some of the satisfaction disappeared when she was told that she was merely one of a series of older women whom Ruth had adored. Just previously it had been Ruth's roommate. Ruth had been insanely jealous. She couldn't bear to have her roommate write to friends back home, or to go to entertainments with boys or with other girls.

She came from an excellent home where she had had very careful training. She had not been permitted to associate with the other boys and girls in the neighborhood because her family believed themselves to be much better than the average in the community in which they lived. Ruth was extremely fond of her father. She could not seem to get along very well, however, with her mother. They quarreled more or less in a polite and icy fashion.

The Dean talked the situation over with the parents, and the father felt that perhaps Ruth ought to drop out of school and come home, that perhaps she wasn't well physically. The mother thought that if Ruth were transferred from this girls' college to a coeducational institution she would undoubtedly receive more attention from men and would respond in a normal fashion. The Dean thought, however, that it would be best to have her continue in college, but to develop some outside contacts and interests. She suggested that Ruth might be interested in becoming a guardian in a group of Camp Fire Girls.

Questions

1. What do you think of each of these recommendations?
2. What do you think were the most probable causes underlying Ruth's tendency to get crushes?

3. What behavior on the part of the teacher involved would have been most helpful to Ruth?

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See also parts B and C in Appendix.

XIV. ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY

1. AT THE HOSPITAL

A girl of 21 was observed in a State Hospital for the Insane. She had left school at 14 and gone to work in a millinery establishment. She had had a very unhappy home. The father was alcoholic; the family lived in a basement to which she was ashamed to bring her friends.

She lost her position after a period of unsatisfactory work. She went into a mood of depression. She sat at home, picked at her face, bit her nails, refused to go outdoors. She cried at every little thing. Asked what was the trouble, she answered, "I don't feel good. Everything hurts." Sometimes she would beg her mother to leave her father. She said she couldn't stand him. She threatened to kill herself or jump in the river.

The mother finally left her husband, and broke up the home. The girl's mood was not improved. She went to a mental hospital and after a few weeks showed marked improvement. She was discharged and found a satisfactory job in a dressmaking establishment. For a year all went well. Then she became restless, couldn't sleep, had no appetite. She seemed flushed and excited. She spoke in an explosive fashion of illicit relations with a man some years before. The next day or two she seemed sad and discouraged. She was tired and cried easily. Then she broke out accusing her mother of having insulted her. She ran out into the street, cursed and screamed. She seemed elated and was overactive. She mistook relatives and friends.

Coming into the room at the hospital she walked around excitedly. "Man—men—mankind—intercourse," she said. "I believe in motherhood but not in the law. There's a flower over

there. It was snowing in the automobile. I wish I had a glass of water."

"Are you nervous?" she was asked.

"Not yet."

"Are you unhappy?"

"Never. I'm happy all the time." She hummed a little tune. "I see you have a brief case. I must ask my principal. I never did hit my mother. Affairs at the shop are so peculiar they actually make me laugh."

Questions

1. How would this case be classified by a psychiatrist?
2. What seem to be the causes?
3. What is the prognosis and treatment?

2. DAY DREAMS

James was one of the model pupils. He was bright and loved to read. His teacher reported, "James never caused me the slightest trouble. He was so interested in his school work that he used to stay in during the recess period. He never had very much to do with the other boys and girls. He was sometimes slow in answering questions, but I could see that it was due to real thinking."

James played the violin beautifully, but by moods. Sometimes he wouldn't touch it for weeks. Shortly after James had been promoted to high school, his teachers noticed rather a change in his personality. He still caused no trouble, but he became much more dreamy. He would sit and gaze at the teacher in a blank sort of fashion. Sometimes he would smile to himself as though in amusement, although nothing was happening to cause it. At home, his parents discovered him standing in front of the mirror watching himself when he should have been getting ready for school. He paid less and less attention to anything they said to him. He ceased going to school because he paid no attention when asked questions. His case was diagnosed as dementia præcox.

Questions

1. Consider the teacher's statement. What constitutes a problem child from her point of view?
2. How much dependence may be placed upon a teacher's estimate of a pupil's brightness?
3. What are the causes of dementia præcox? Could the school have done anything to prevent it?
4. What is the prognosis for dementia præcox?
5. In what ways is the following statement misleading? How far is it correct?

About So-Called Insanity

SOME MISCONCEPTIONS THAT STILL LINGER:

1. That insanity comes suddenly.
2. That once insane always insane.
3. That insanity is a disgrace.
4. That insanity is an unfortunate visitation to be regarded with resignation and fatalism.
5. That mental disease is incurable.
6. That asylums for the insane are dreadful places and that admission to them rings down the curtain on the lives of the victims.
7. That emotional shock, the loss of dear ones, disappointment in love, economic loss, and other human misfortunes cause insanity.
8. That insanity is a specific disease entity.
9. That nobody can guard against mental disease.
10. That a person is either sane or insane.
11. That "nervous breakdown" is a disease of the nerves.

WHAT SCIENCE IS TEACHING TO-DAY:

1. That insanity develops gradually over shorter or longer periods of time.
2. That many of the insane are restored to health after a period of hospital treatment.

3. That insanity is a condition no more to be ashamed of than pneumonia or a broken limb.
4. That insanity is mental disease and should receive medical attention, just as tuberculosis, cancer or other physical conditions.
5. That many persons with mental disease are being cured to-day and restored to health and normality.
6. That our asylums are being turned into hospitals in which the insane receive medical care and treatment, and from which between 25 and 40 per cent are discharged recovered or improved.
7. That personal misfortunes and tragedies are frequently the precipitating causes of insanity, but that the accumulation of a variety of factors inherent in the progressive life experience of the individual is really responsible for unsettling mental balance and bringing on mental breakdown.
8. That "insanity" is a convenient term used by the courts to denote irresponsibility in the eyes of the law, and that there are many different kinds of mental disorder just as there are many kinds of physical disorder.
9. That there are usually danger signals and symptoms of an approaching breakdown that can be recognized and medically dealt with.
10. That there are different degrees of mental health, just as there are varying degrees of physical health.
11. That "nervous breakdown" is in reality a mental condition in which there is seldom anything organically wrong with the nervous system.

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6. If the present rate continues, about what proportion of the children now in school will spend some time in an institution for the care and treatment of the insane? What facts do you need in addition to those given below?

Of 31,377 new admissions to the first 92 state hospitals

reporting to the National Committee for Mental Hygiene for the year 1924, 10.6 per cent had attended or were graduated from high school and an additional 3.0 per cent had attended or were graduated from college. The following tabulation gives the degree of education by sexes of the first admissions to these hospitals during that year:

Degree of Education	Number		Per Cent	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Illiterate	1,275	908	7.0	6.9
Reads and writes	2,507	1,657	13.8	12.5
Common School	10,931	8,032	60.2	60.7
High School	1,670	1,663	9.2	12.6
College	632	301	3.5	2.3
Unascertained	1,133	668	6.2	5.0
Total	18,148	13,229	100.0	100.0

Similar data compiled from 70 state hospitals for 1920 showed that of 21,360 first admissions to this group of hospitals, 1,852, or 8.7 per cent, had attended or were graduated from high school, and an additional 510, or 2.4 per cent, had attended or were graduated from college.

If we exclude those cases whose education was unknown and base our percentages on ascertained cases alone, we find the following percentage distribution of the first admissions for the two years by degree of education:

Degree of Education	1924	1920
Illiterate	7.4	10.1
Reads and writes	14.1	22.6
Common School	64.1	55.6
High School	11.3	9.2
College	3.2	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0

In interpreting the above figures it must be remembered that the data for 1920 and 1924 are not for the same group of hospitals and are, therefore, not strictly com-

parable. Again, it is quite likely that cases were reported more accurately in 1924 than in 1920. Furthermore, it should be noted that these data are for state hospitals only. Unfortunately, similar information is not available for a sufficient number of private hospitals to warrant tabulation. If private hospitals were included in the above tabulations, the percentages for the high school and college groups would undoubtedly run much higher.

3. CUMULATIVE CAUSES

In a large Southern city lived a man about forty years of age, whom we shall call Sam Smith. He was a graduate of a New England college and had spent some time in graduate professional training. This training had not been well integrated. He had had a few courses in medicine, a few in law, and a few in education. He had gone through two severe nervous breakdowns, each of which had necessitated several months of recuperation, and felt that he was on the verge of another. His life was made miserable by a host of fears. Although a man of some wealth, he was constantly afraid that he would lose money. He could not pay a bill without labored investigation to make sure that he was not being overcharged. He found himself growing suspicious that his friends were after his money. He didn't dare go out to buy clothes for himself, although he could do it if a friend would go along. He kept crackers in his room so that he would not starve if he found himself unable to get up out of bed some morning. Letters accumulated in his desk because he could not answer them unless someone would sit in the room with him while he worked.

He appeared to be in vigorous health, although there was a look of fear haunting his features and his mouth occasionally twitched in a nervous tic. His speech was precise and cultured. He was interested in a wide variety of activities, especially in techniques of group coöperation, in European student relief, in missions, in the Dewey decimal classification, and in ex-

tremely ritualistic worship. He had done some little work in the production of plays and pageants, and found it very gratifying.

Sam's mother had died when he was about four years old, and he remembers her as very gentle and beautiful. He was cared for in turn by five maiden aunts. He remembers these early experiences with one aunt and another as a period of very great depression. Some of these aunts he hates and despises to this day.

Sam's father was a hard-working man of wealth, rather coarse in his interests and in later life given to excessive drinking. His father had expected great things of Sam. He had tried to stimulate the boy to greater achievement by never being satisfied with anything that Sam did. He criticized Sam severely and often. Partly in order to avoid criticism and partly because of the ever-present attention of his aunts, Sam seldom tried to do anything for himself. He mentions as typical an incident in which a nurse drew a picture for him and then displayed it as an example of what Sam had done.

Sam always went to private schools and succeeded in doing better than average in his class work. He never showed any interest in girls. He disliked meeting people, but occasionally grew very devoted to some man friend. He wasn't clear as to just what work he wanted to do, but he felt that it would be very desirable to engage in some social service work in a needy country such as Russia. He had periods of great enthusiasm when he built castles in the air. He saw himself rendering tremendous service in utterly new ways. The attempt to translate these dreams into the immediately next steps, such as learning to typewrite, resulted in a feeling of deep depression and helplessness. His fears would recur and he would find himself unable to carry out his work. Given certain simple classification work to do, he would pass several hours doing about as much work as could be done by an energetic person in fifteen minutes. The rest of the time would be spent in reading the material he was classifying, thinking up

other ways to do it, reading something that had but a remote bearing on the work he was doing, and similar evasions.

Questions

1. How great do you believe to be the importance of each of the following factors in explaining Sam Smith's situation:
   (*a*) His father's extreme alcoholism.
   (*b*) The combination of too much attention and too much repression exerted by the maiden aunts.
   (*c*) A physiological condition. (Most of the symptoms of Graves disease were present. Or a psychiatrist might have diagnosed the condition as manic depressive.)
   (*d*) Fixation upon his mother.
   (*e*) Laziness, using his money as a method for avoiding the necessity of doing any work.
   (*f*) Fear of incompetency and inadequacy, growing out of his father's severe criticism.
2. If Sam had come to a school for which you were responsible, what would you have suggested as desirable and likely to prevent this unfortunate development?

4. SKIDDING

The following are extracts from K. K.'s book in which he outlines his "Plan of Life" and many other things. The punctuation and spelling are as he wrote it. The only additional comments are inclosed in brackets. On the cover of this book is an arithmetic problem as follows:

125 concerts = each concert counts one night
$2,000

$232,000 yearly

Carl Baffin [His choice of a fictitious name]

Born—1913
Age in 1928—15
Date—Sept. 25.

Where born—in Madison
When confirmed—
When became a Contractor—
Date when I bought an auto—
Kind of automobile—
Where lived in 1928—Newark, N. Y. until , 1929.

[note inserted at top of page]

Put name on car—CARL BAFFIN in big letters, white or black. Try and get a Cadillac 7 passenger sedan. Have a good colored one such as purplish blue, etc.
When 16 call your name Baffin, say that I am 18-10 yrs. old. Go to church on Sundays. When 16½ or 17 go and try your fortune at New York City. Save money and go on train to New York City. Get a car and if not old enough to drive, then get a chauffeur.

1. most popular

her name—Lucille Stewart. Age—6 to 8 yrs. old. Wt.—about 38-45 lbs. Address—In care of C. D. Stewart, R. F. D. No. Newark, N. Y. She is small for her age and thin and short. Blue eyes, black hair. Lives on second road from school houses near gasoline station at the 3rd house, a left house. Light complexioned. At 16 go to see her with my $2,000 car. Her father had a Chevrolet Sedan. Go to Newark, N. Y. often when contractor.

[Concert Singer]

New York debut with subsequent press notions, usually means financial deficit, but it furnishes advertising for future concerts in other cities. This strong financial backing is necessary before concert singer can get on feet. Some use concert work as a stepping stone to opera but many voice singers who have won reputation earn much of their income in concert appearance out of opera season. Good manager import to look after contracts, publicity. John Mc Cormack gets $5,000 a concert & Madame Heinkeggets $3,000 a concert.
Even virtue in excess may become vice.
For long life—10 things. Keep your mouth closed when breathing and when angry. This prevents colds and pneumonia. Drink cool water with meals and between times. Do not drink ice water nor anything too hot. Bathe daily. Eat slowly and sparingly. Never or transact any business while eating. Exercise daily but avoid over exertion. Work 8 hours, sleep 8, keep 8 free for recreation and meals.

Always rest on Sun. Keep a contented mind. Equanimity means longevity. Employ a physician to examine you at regular intervals, do as he says.

Plans
16.

At 16 stay at father or mother & beard their. Save money or what little you can. Buy mercolized wax. Have Liquid pooler = $5.00 = $8.00 & such, etc. for facial contour. Go to Sea Breeze in summer for recreation when season is out for it. Take pictures at Sea Breeze studio and keep the pictures. Go with brother or mother their. Have your fortune told by fortune teller at Sea Breeze on a Sunday. Buy Petersons ointment.
Remember shave 2 a wk or 3 times a wk. Look for girls & give rides. Go to Newark often too. To a Catholic Church also. When at mothers of fathers at sixteen buy your meals at cheap restaurant, say 30 = 35c. Draw cartoons in the night and part of Sundays so as to earn money & put in bank. Pay $25 = $1.00 a cartoon. Collect old magazines to make your Cartoons from & maybe by that way I could ship them to the place where buy them. Could easily make $100 a wk that way. Look up for a money making factory that buys cartoons & pay that amount. When contractor do that too for what will increase my pay. If contractor at 17 buy an auto and use James Newville license & let him where his chauffeurs license. The cars to pick from the following, Stutz, Cadillacc, Lincoln, Marmon, Pierce Arrow.

[articles to wear]

A tuxedo suit, a stove pipe hat, fancy oxford, silk shirts, etc. Buy Marvo Liquid Skin Peel. Buy shaving needs as shaving talc & shaving cream, etc. Buy Golden Peacock Bleach Cream & everything to keep your face clean & healthy. Remember [the states in order] [Here follow 29 states and a dozen cities of Canada and England].

[Magician]
at 16

Clubs, churches, schools, conventions, theaters are on the lookout for magician. Pay $25 — $100 for perhaps ½ hour of a program. Write for booklet = Tarbell system Inc., Studio 27-79 1926 Sunnyside Avenue, Chicago Illinois. Free illustrated colored booklet giving full information on Tarbell System of Magic. No obligation on my part whatever = Western Story Magazein.

The foreign pieces for piano. [There follows 2 pages filled with the titles of pieces mostly classical].
Can buy the above pieces at Levis Music Store or at any other Music Store in Auburn, N. Y. When working for Jimmy at $35 weekly as bookkeeper buy a piano to learn on & buy music sheets in Auburn, N. Y. Also send for the Booklet = How to play piano which learns you how without the Aid of instructors, etc.

[The following letter was written to the mother of girl mentioned above].

[no date]

My dear Mrs. Dee:
You probably think that I am a suspicious character. No, I am not, because I let God know all my wishes. I will tell you one of them when I am 16 years old. Of which I will be 16 next September 25. I am 15 now. At 18-20 years old I expect to be worth over $5,000 — $100,000 or better. I suppose you are well and your 2 daughters. I hope your eldest daughter is well. I will come to your house at 16 years old or say between 16-18. My money will come by working for it and not steeling and borrowing. Good knows all of my wishes. I will tell you things of my life & important incidents that has passed. I am certain that I will come to your house at 16 yrs old & tell you these facts of which are true.

from an intimate friend
Signature signed CARL BAFFIN

that I have wrote this & that all that I have said in this letter, and not a suspicious character.
Very truly yours,

CARL BAFFIN

Questions

1. What would a psychiatrist say of K. K's condition.
2. What are the most probable causes of this personality state? What is the prognosis?
3. How frequent are such disorders?

5. PERSECUTED

The following extracts come from a poorly mimeographed document found on the seat of a subway train in New York City. Names have been omitted here.

Now I tell you the third edition of my little story and nothing but the truth. I swear this is nothing but the truth. I swear to God. They are working all kinds of games and schemes, to get away with the crime. This is the first history since the world exist. The figure of a person, the soul of a snake rolling himself into the family of the city of Belgard. He ruined and poisoned my oldest sister. He ruined the family by the name of R, the father of five children. He robbed the city of $50,000 and ran to this country. If anybody wants to see Mr. R. today, he lives in Brooklyn. I will gladly show you the man.

Now I will tell the world the 3rd part of my life's story. I was born in a little city, Belgard. My father and mother had nine children, six girls and three boys. I was fourteen years of age, my parents used to get letters of different states, offering a large fortune of money of rich young men, asking my father if it is possible to be engaged to them and to be married when I became of age. My father answered that he will not make the oldest daughter ashamed, because she comes first. The reason they did that was because my name was a beauty over the whole country.

And that same year a man came into the house, with a soul of a devil. He had the feeling of the last murder in the world. His name is W. D. S. today. He ruined my oldest sister Y. and he kidnapped me and brought me to this country, and married me for protection. I only saw him once in my life before he kidnapped me. Then he kidnapped me. He crossed the boarder and had three men carry me, hiding me in the forest till five in the morning. Through swamps, rain, lightning, in the midst of the forest, they kept me from the hours of two to five. I heard police shooting at us. Now think of it, to rob a girl of fifteen away from her mother's heart. From fright I was stiff and couldn't talk. I became like a dummy for three days. He brought me to Vienna to the Hotel Natsinal. He brought two Jewish women and a Rabbi in the hotel; they put a white veil on me and he said I am his wife. That was for his own protection. I saw everything they did to me, I didn't say yes or no, I was doped up from fright. He brought me to America to the city of New York.

Six months passed and I became very sick. I started to spit with blood and he took me to Prof. Jacoby. The professor told him that I was to become a mother and called him a dirty brute to take a child for a mother. But he said I was six months in the

family way. Today he is my boy Harry. When Harry was six months old his father tried to kill him. The same day the Marshal of the court house put him out because he paid no rent. And that same day he left me and my poor little children on the furniture on the street till 2 A.M., maybe he would come back to his little children, with blood tears waiting till 2 o'clock in the morning. My children didn't have a thing the whole day to eat. The janitor took pity on me at three o'clock in the morning and told me to go to the yardhouse on the stoop where there is empty rooms, there is a piece of carpet on the floor and you could lay down there and sleep with your children overnight.

A few years later I was a mother of five children, the youngest was six months by the breast, he left me with five children on the street again. We did not know what became of him; a few years later I found out he was with M. L.'s sister. I could prove to you that this is the truth with two boarders that lived by us.

Months and months passed I couldn't sleep, I talking to God and said, "Oh God, good God, what that beast done to me." To think my children and me in this country, to think how the beast killed my family in Europe. And he gets away with it because he pays graft. Then I saw my little children every night stretching their little hands out to me with tears in their eyes crying, "Mamma, mamma where are you, come to us we want you, we're hungry." With this thought I was laying with open eyes, and couldn't sleep crying with blood tears, till daylight. And when I couldn't sleep nights and I couldn't work days.

Now W. S., the beast, heard that I am trying to get along and I would live again. He bought off two detectives and sent them to Boston, and right to the place where I was working, and they said, "I solicited them in. They locked me up and put me in jail. I could hardly get out with life. They have a sergeant in Seaside, Rockaway Beach Police Court. He is the head over the police in Seaside. Every time I come to Rockaway beach, he usually sent out all the police he had in the police station to surround me. The reason he did that, was to scare me and get me nervous, that means to ruin my health. That means murder, to kill a United States mother for graft.

One of my sons, L. had poison spells, and used to fall in the street for ten years, and we didn't know how he got it, until I made a big holler about that these three murderers are poisening about that the boy. And since that time, two years ago, the spells had stopped

and the boy feels fine. My brother was poisoned little by little and he died suddenly, and we did not know how he got poisened. One of our friends, that used to get whiskey of Mr. M.'s associate, Mr. W. died suddenly and nobody knows how it happened. They are trying to clear me off the world.

They kept this up for four years. He put over ten girls in White Slavery Life. M. M. 25 years old was trying to put me in white slavery life and I gave it over to District Attorney J., and he had him arrested, five times. He put over ten girls in White Slavery Life. They kept him in jail, till he signed that he would keep away from me, and since that time I have been rid of him. Look what he says to me now for the last four years. He has a friend in the court, his name is L. L., in Supreme Court, New York. M. L., he is the one who sent up the report to all the police stations, that they should watch me. He is the head of all the frame ups they have given me. He said I was a crook, but he never wants to face me, and we can prove that he said that. He went always in the back of me, and we didn't know he was abusing me. Mr. S. was bought off to destroy the institution to save nervous people from the Insane Asylum. At last we found out that these are two of the grafters of the game. M. M. was sitting in jail 8 years for poisoning horses. He stabbed a man and held up many people. He is the head of all the gangsters in New York. Just think of that, that so many crooks are after one sick United States mother, trying to kill her for graft.

It's a shame of the United States to let them get away with it. I guess this will prove to you what kind of crooks and grafters they are. I went to sell books to the Home of the Aged in East 10th St. cor. 2 Ave., New York. These crooks put a guy in my road. This guy insulted me and called a cop, and said, I insulted him, and the cop took me to the first district court and the judge fined me $5.00 for insulting the man. They took my finger prints and I think they took my picture too. That was a frame up on me, so that they could show the people I am no good. They framed me up a couple of time.

How many detectives he has in Center Street he send them day and night to watch me. Look what I found in my food since they are watching me—glass, pills and pins, and any place I go to talk to somebody they have a man in the back of me and says to the people, "Don't talk to her, don't listen to her, she's crazy." Any-

body who will read this magazine, I ask you to write to the Government, the Government should get after them.

MOTHER OF THE BOY

Mrs. K.

Question

1. What diagnosis and prognosis can be offered for this case?

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XV. ADULT EDUCATION

1. A FOND MOTHER

"My little girl, Mildred, is a Soul-Vitalist child," said Mrs. Pratt. She raised her voice, "Mildred love, come to mother."

Mildred appeared with so startling a celerity that some of the more cynical ladies were led to think that she had been listening at the keyhole. She was a stout, mature-looking child, with long banana-colored curls and a short silk-and-lace dress.

"Make a curtsy to the ladies, Mildred love," said Mrs. Pratt. Mildred gave the ladies a hard look.

"Don't want to," she said.

Mrs. Pratt smiled.

"Very well, darling," she said. "I never coerce her," she explained. "I want her always to express her own little individuality."

Mildred expressed some at the moment by saying, "Gimme a nickel."

"Mother has no more nickels," said Mrs. Pratt. "She gave her precious two this morning."

"Lost 'em," said Mildred. "Want another one."

"Now, darling——"

"I'll kick and scream," promised Mildred.

"But, darling——"

Mildred made good her promise.

"Oh, do let me give her a nickel," said Mrs. Hummell. Mrs. Pratt nodded. Mildred took the nickel with the hasty gesture of a crow picking up a grain of corn.

"Now," said Mildred, "gimme another one or I'll swally this one."

"Let her," Mrs. Cusack advised Mrs. Hummell, in a very low whisper.

"I think you'd better give her one," said Mrs. Pratt. "She has such a will."

Mildred got the nickel.

"She's very delicate," said Mrs. Pratt.

"She doesn't look it," said Mrs. Foster.

"She has the appetite of a bird," said Mrs. Pratt. "There are few things she will eat. And she's so temperamental. For a time she'd eat nothing but muffins and strawberry ice cream. One day I offered her a plate of strawberry ice cream. 'Mother,' she said, in that earnest little way she has, 'I will not eat it. I want bunilly.' That's her way of saying 'vanilla.' "

"Cute," said Mrs. Cusack.

"Terribly," said Mrs. Bentley.

"Well, I got the vanilla, but she wouldn't touch it. 'Mother,' she said, 'I don't want bunilly; I want chukky.' That's her way of saying 'chocolate.' "

"The little humorist," said Mrs. Hummell.

"Well," continued Mrs. Pratt, "I got her chocolate, and do you know, she wouldn't eat a spoon of it!"

"No?" said Mrs. Foster. "You don't say!"

"I do," said Mrs. Pratt. "Not a spoon. Another time I had the cook make her some floating island. Mildred asked for it specially. 'Floaty iley,' she calls it."

"Don't tell me she wouldn't eat it," said Mrs. Foster.

Mildred, in the corner, trying to put the nickels in her ears, smiled complacently.

"I think we'd better be going," said Mrs. Hummell. "Such a nice visit."

"It's early," said Mrs. Pratt. "I'd like to tell you some more about the work we did at home. We agitated for a curfew law. All in favor of it wore little brass bells. We'd go into a shop—the butcher's, for example—and say, 'Good morning. Before I order my meat, may I pin a little bell on you to show you are in favor of a ten o'clock curfew for our young people?' If he said no, we turned right around and walked out of his shop. Our campaign was very successful."

Little Mildred, no longer the center of interest, had been

stirring restlessly in her corner. Now she broke in with a penetrating "Mother!"

"What, love?"

"Tell them," said Mildred, "about the time I wouldn't eat the scrambled eggs."

"We really must be going," said Mrs. Hummell.

"I'm glad you called," said Mrs. Pratt. "I know we'll be good neighbors. Mr. Pratt will be pleased when I tell him that the members of the little group up here are such sane, normal folks. I'm sure we'll have a lot in common. Good day."

—*The Saturday Evening Post.*

Questions

1. If this child came to your schoolroom, what would be your procedure in dealing with her? What are the causes of her behavior?
2. How can you help this parent?
3. What is the relationship of self-expression to social control?
4. Does the following list help in understanding the above case?

Reprinted from the "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," Oct. 1926, Vol. IV, No. 8.

1. "NERVOUSNESS"

DO I CAUSE MY CHILD TO BE NERVOUS?

By:

Being nervous myself?
Telling him about it so that I may have his sympathy?
Constantly reminding him how nervous he is?
Telling other people in his presence how nervous and queer and odd he is?
Worrying over his health and habits?
Worrying him with my worries over him?
Coddling him physically and mentally?

Denying him independence of thought and action?
Expecting too much from him and driving him all the time?

If you think your child is nervous, first be sure of yourself.

2. DISOBEDIENCE

DO I CAUSE MY CHILD TO DISOBEY?

By:

Uttering useless or unreasonable commands?
Contradicting my own commands?
Threatening him (and never carrying out the threat)?
Stopping everything he starts to do?
Refusing his requests, even though they are reasonable?
Paying no attention to what he does until it interferes with my comfort?
Promising and failing to keep my promise?
Making him want to disobey for the sake of the excitement it creates?
Evading my own duties and responsibilities?
Constantly expecting disobedience?
Quarreling with him over trivial matters?
Failing to make him understand?

Disobedience is usually the parent's fault.

3. TEMPER TANTRUMS?

DO I CAUSE MY CHILD TO HAVE TEMPER TANTRUMS?

By:

Setting an example of temper tantrums?
Scolding and nagging and thrashing him when I am angry?
Impressing on him what a fearful temper he has?
Constantly changing my attitude so he never knows what to expect?
Keeping him overexcited?
Not giving him enough rest?

Giving him his way when he has a tantrum?
Bribing him to stop?

The constant use of temper tantrums by a child is always the fault of the parent.

4. DISHONESTY

Do I Cause My Child to be Dishonest?

By:
Lying to him?
Lying to others in his presence?
Overstimulating his imagination?
Evading his questions?
Telling him *anything* to get him to do what I want him to do?
Boasting before him of some dishonest practice by which I gained an advantage?
Refusing him most of the things he wants?
Dealing out harsh treatment for minor offenses?
Repressing all natural outlets for activity?
Shielding him from all consequences of his dishonesty?
Stealing, or actions which he interprets as stealing?
Making a hero of some one noted for dishonesty?

It is remarkably easy to be dishonest, even with one's self.

5. FEAR

Do I Frighten My Child So He Becomes Timid and Fearful?

By:
Threats of the "Bogey-man"?
Threats of leaving him?
Threats of horrible punishments?
Telling him frightening stories?
Inflicting my fears and terrors on him?

Constant worry over his minor accidents, ailments and habits?

Fear is our most important emotion; a little goes a long way.

2. MOTHER'S CHILD AT FIFTY-FOUR

The following letter was sent us recently with a request for the name of a psychiatrist to whom the patient might go for help.

". . . My nervousness and fears have increased rapidly of late and I wonder if I am not on the verge of a breakdown. I am fifty-four and unmarried. Much of my trouble I think is due to my mother, who is eighty-two years old and has been a widow since I was four. Mentally she is very active and keeps me fretting continuously. Sometimes she makes me feel as if I had no thinking powers at all, and whenever I express an idea she just looks amused. If I really try to assert myself she looks so grieved and puts on her 'Mother knows best' expression. I don't dare insist, for the doctor warned me never to excite her, as she has a weak heart.

"I have never really been allowed to think anything out for myself and the thing I look forward to with the most apprehension is the time when Mother will be taken from me and I shall be obliged to depend on myself and my own judgment.

"You must understand that Mother is the dearest little woman in the world, very fragile, and one whom everybody loves, but she doesn't understand bringing up a family—and I am an only child. If only I could be let wholesomely alone. . . ."

—*Mental Hygiene Bulletin,* April, 1926.

Questions

1. What can be done for this person?
2. Could anything have been done when she was a child to prevent such a situation arising?

3. OEDIPUS

Andrew was the only child of a mother about forty years of age and a father nearing sixty. He had an extraordinary degree of intelligence, but didn't participate much in the activities which the other boys enjoyed. His mother looked after him carefully. Throughout his high school and college life, Andrew showed no interest in girls. He was offered two positions and chose the poorer because it would permit him to be home week-ends. A company of friends at his house one day were talking about marriage and kidding Andrew in a good-natured fashion. His mother laid an affectionate hand upon his arm. "Andrew is never going to get married," she said. "I'm just going to keep him with me." The conversation shifted to other subjects.

Questions

1. Did the mother love Andrew?
2. How do you account for the lack of interest in girl friends?
3. If Andrew does marry, what will be the probable consequences?
4. What other errors in child training are likely to make worthy home membership difficult or impossible?

4. THE OLD OAKEN BUCKET

The School Board had just one serious problem. That was old Mr. Banks. He had been a school teacher and a successful superintendent years ago. He had given up educational interests for a business career, in which he had been unusually successful from a financial point of view. He had no sympathy at all with the modern innovations in education and did not hesitate to say so upon every occasion. He was convinced that in the days when he was running school affairs the products of the school knew how to read better, write more legibly, add more accurately, and were far better disciplined. He knew from his industrial experience that em-

ployers found it hard to find high school graduates willing to start at the bottom, work hard, and fit into the organization without what he regarded as radical attempts to get something for nothing. Because of his prestige and financial power, it was difficult to oppose him, even on matters in which the rest of the board felt that it might be wise to make a change.

Questions

1. How might such an attitude have been built up in Mr. Banks? Mention some experiences which probably contributed. Upon what inherent satisfiers and annoyers do these rest?
2. How much truth is there in the point of view that the schools used to produce a better product in the respects he mentioned? How do you account for the facts?
3. What suggestions has psychology to offer on ways of utilizing Mr. Banks's ability as a board member without his interfering with necessary progress?

5. SECTIONS

Miss Smith is principal of the Webster Elementary School. School has been in session for about a week after the summer vacation. Arriving at her office on Monday morning, Miss Smith finds Mrs. Thompson awaiting her, evidently in no pleasant mood. Before Miss Smith is inside the door, Mrs. Thompson jumps up and shouts out, "My son Johnny is just as bright as Edward Brooks. The teacher told me so last year. Now I find that Johnny has been put in the low section with all the feeble-minded children, while Edward is in the bright section. Either you put Johnny in the bright section, or I'll take the case up with the City Superintendent."

Questions

1. Would you put Johnny in the bright section?
2. Should an attempt be made to conceal from parents and

students the section in which pupils are placed? Is that possible?

3. What would you say to this parent?

6. LIFE'S SAVING GRACES

A supervisor was asked for her opinion about Miss H. She said, "There is only one trouble with Miss H. She just doesn't have any sense of humor. She's an intelligent teacher, had an excellent record in normal school, but she takes life too seriously. She spends more time on her work than any other teacher in the building. I think it would be a good thing if she could get interested in something else. The worst trouble, though, is that she is always getting her feelings hurt. Something is said in fun, and she takes it as a personal affront. She could never get along with high school pupils. She doesn't smile often enough, and doesn't know how to take a joke."

. . . . .

The assistant in the Registrar's Office was distinctly unpopular with the students. She was very officious and bossy. She seemed to take delight in refusing the requests that came to her window. People so often made mistakes on the matters which were brought to her that she assumed that everybody was mistaken until he had proved himself otherwise. She had been rather a sickly child, not as bright as her older sister, who was teaching in a neighboring city. The family had been financially handicapped, and the money earned by this work at the school was much needed.

Questions

1. What in the experience of these girls had probably led to the development of their present attitudes?
2. How far would the attitudes of students and parents toward the institution be determined by persons in such positions? Are public attitudes more dependent upon newspaper advertising or incidents of personal contact?
3. Would it be necessary to replace these individuals, or

could they be expected to change their attitudes? How would you go about it to get such changes?

7. TOO OLD

Mr. Sanborn flung himself into a chair, utterly exhausted.

"I have been trying to teach algebra to my class and it is an impossibility," he groaned. "They just can't seem to get it. The most simple explanations make no more impression than water on a duck's back. I guess they are just too old to get it. Most of them are over thirty. A couple of the younger ones aren't so bad. The fellow who said we are mentally complete by twenty-five was surely right."

"I don't agree at all," came back Mr. Arnold, who was also a teacher in the Evening School. "I have a class in literature where the average age is at least thirty-five. I teach a class at College during the day and the boys there can't compare with these men. This evening we had a discussion on the relative merits of present day poets as compared with those of the past century that sounded like a graduate seminar. I don't think they care about algebra. But I know they can learn after they are twenty-five."

"Oh, appreciation may be a different thing. But real learning—not much use after one gets out into business. We ought to work for strict laws that will keep the children in school and teach them while they are still teachable."

"If your arguments are worth anything, Mr. Sanborn, how do you explain the importance of people over thirty in the affairs of the world?"

"That's easy. Those fellows just had the ability all the time. They don't really learn anything new. They are simply using the things they acquired when they were younger. Ask me another."

Questions

1. When does learning ability cease? Why should it cease?
2. How do you explain Mr. Sanborn's attitude?
3. Is adult education important?

4. What difference in approach would one make for a class of pupils over forty as compared with a class under twenty?
5. What are the implications of all this for our plan of education?

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XVI. SOCIAL ATTITUDES

1. WHAT PRICE PEACE

The speaker had just finished an impassioned plea for world peace. He had pointed out the practical certainty that another war would mean the destruction by gas and bacteria of men, women, and children throughout cities and nations. He had illustrated the folly of the endeavor to find the right adjustment of human relationships by such means. He had shown that no one can win in modern warfare. Every one loses.

Some of the teachers were talking together as they walked home. One of them said, "I think he is absolutely right, and I think it's a crime for us to keep on teaching the kind of history which makes heroes out of those who are responsible for war." Another one said, "I don't think the history books are as bad as our patriotic exercises. We give pupils all the thrills of being part of a great nation and of loyalty to the flag, and then we connect that enthusiasm with war instead of constructive service. Even our patriotic songs are full of war phrases." Another teacher resented this criticism. She said, "I don't think it's so bad as that. In our social science work we try to build up an appreciation for other countries, for the worth of their people and their civilization." It was the cynic's turn now. "Yes, and a lot of good that will do. There is no country for whose civilization the United States had so high a respect before 1914 as it had for the art and science and music of Germany. It took just about one year to teach us to hate the Germans, and about a year after the war to teach us to hate the French. No, war is human nature and there isn't any use trying to change it."

Questions

1. When you talk of war to the average citizen, is his attitude due in any way to connections formed from history books and in patriotic drills? Which connections have been most often practiced with satisfaction?
2. Does experience indicate that war is an outgrowth of lack of familiarity with contributions of other nations, or that the war spirit itself is adequate to produce contempt for other nations?
3. What are the satisfactions and annoyances which lead the average citizen to leave his home and enlist in war? Upon what instinctive satisfiers do these rest?
4. How much connection is there between this behavior and the instinctive anger-pugnacity reaction of a baby as described by J. B. Watson?
5. Is it original nature to respond to the particular situation of having arms pinioned down by screaming, kicking, etc., or is it original nature to respond to any thwarting by resentment and attack? Through what sort of mechanism could this latter sort of tendency appear?
6. Which of the following is most closely related to war?
   (*a*) The learning which comes when a child boxes with another.
   (*b*) The learning which comes when a child plays with guns.
   (*c*) The learning which comes when a child is led by force of social approval to take part in a pageant which he considers silly.
7. Can a person who is born with a certain instinctive response be led to modify the original response or to substitute an entirely different one for it? How?
8. Where do we get our original nature? How would it be possible to produce a race in whom certain original tendencies—for example, anger, curiosity, intelligence, concern for social approval—were very much stronger or weaker than they are in modern human nature?
9. Is this quotation based upon sound psychology?

"One of Our Menaces

"Ho hum, ho hum,
I've a happy life;
I've a little sonny,
A nice little wife;
I've a little money
From a nice little store—
Ho hum, ho hum,
I wish there was a war.

"Life is very pleasant
And always just the same;
I can call the mayor
By his first name;
As a golf player
I've a low score—
Ho hum, ho hum,
I wish there was a war.

"My wife gives a party,
It's really very nice;
We have a little salad,
Coffee and an ice;
I sing a funny ballad,
The folks yell for more—
Ho hum, ho hum,
I wish there was a war.

"I'd like to loot cathedrals
And hang men to trees;
I'd like to have a try at
A few atrocities;
I'd like a world-wide riot;
I don't care what it's for—
Ho hum, ho hum,
Let's have a war!"

Morris Bishop, from "Paramount Poems," pp. 58-9, New York. Minton, Balch, 1929.

2. PREJUDICE

Two Negro students joined the Cosmopolitan Club of a college in the mid-west. The secretary of the club became indignant and resigned. She said she had understood that the purpose of the club was to promote international understanding.

Questions

1. How do such attitudes arise?
2. What is the relationship between the answer to the first question, and the reasons which this girl might have given to explain and justify her attitude?
3. How do such attitudes change?

3. HOW WE GOT THAT WAY

Below are listed some words which may arouse a feeling response. Read each quickly. What does it suggest to you? If the word suggests something unpleasant, annoying, undesirable, offensive, if it arouses irritation, anger, contempt or distaste, cross the word out. If it is attractive to you, suggests something desirable, pleasant, worth seeking, or to which you feel a quick loyalty, draw a line around it. If the word arouses no response or one not clearly negative or positive, leave it unmarked. The impression to be recorded is not a reasoned one, but a quick affective tone or picture.

Negro	Germany	Minister	Agnostic	Censor
Fundamentalist	China	Priest	Jewish	Prohibition
Radical	Congress	Socialist	Japanese	Revival
Communist	Pacifist	Rotarian	Mexican	Battleship
France	Tariff	Free Love	Stock-broker	Cigarettes

Questions

1. Give the best explanation you can for each reaction. Was it inborn? What influences brought it about? Do you associate persons or experiences or pictures with the term?

2. How far would the influence of a speech or editorial on public policy be conditioned by emotional responses connected with such words? What is the relation of such feelings to reasoning?

4. THE ECONOMIC MAN

The economic order is a chief sphere, if not the chief one, for the realization of personal selves. This is the only coherent meaning that we can give to it. Therefore, whenever we find it turning out undeveloped, depressed, or distorted personalities, they must not be taken as by-products or incidents; they are the main concern, and therefore the system is here sick and self-defeating. To say that we are engaged in making goods and not men is in any case simply not so. We actually do make men of one sort or another in all our sowing and reaping, mining and smelting, manufacture, commerce, and finance. For better or for worse this is so; there is no escaping it.

But our modern world deludes itself on this point by endeavoring to maintain and cultivate a spiritual life alongside the economic. By "spiritual" life I mean the only thing that it can signify to us moderns, namely, regard for personal selves, all selves within our purview. This concept of the spiritual includes a scale of attitudes long enough to reach all the way from comforting a frightened child to worshiping God. We are self-deceived in that we have turned over the makings of selves to schools, homes, and churches as their specialty, for the making of selves takes place just as truly and not less effectively in and through the economic order. We have rather lazily assumed, too, that the superior personal relations experienced or talked about in home, school, and church will somehow—rarely does any one even attempt to say just how—pass over into the field, the factory, the market, and the financial institution.

The present partition of ourselves into secular and religious, industrial and cultural, practical and idealistic is deceptive and ruinous. It results in half-conscious gropings,

tangled purposes, self-defeating self-assertions, fallacious self-justifications, and diluted standards of spirituality. In consequence of it the economic order lacks definite meaning. It should mean production for use and for the enlargement of life all along the line, but instead it is not unambiguously directed towards any human good whatsoever. It feeds the hungry (some of them), but it also exploits their hunger. It indirectly supports education, science, art, philanthropies, and religion; but at the same time it promotes senseless luxury, conspicuous spending, a commercialized amusement fever, political corruption, and the kind of national economy that makes for war. If it has sharpened the wits of many, and opened to them wider vistas, it has likewise made multitudes of minds hard, materialistic, mechanical. It has produced class consciousness and class conflict so general and so acute that sober observers are wondering whether the system is not bound to destroy itself by its internal friction.

Quoted from Coe, G. A., *The Motives of Men.* By permission, Chas. Scribners, New York, 1929.

Questions

1. Are "integrated personalities" likely to develop in the life of the modern world? In what sense is this true?
2. What sort of education is essential for achieving integration?
3. What changes in institutions are involved in effective education?
4. What evidence is there on the techniques by which social changes of the sort Coe has in mind, can be brought about?

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XVII. GROUP AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

1. PORTRAITS OF COMMITTEE MEMBERS

You are chairman of an executive committee of five members, including yourself, which has some very important duties to perform. You find after two or three committee meetings that two of the members are perfectly willing to do anything they are told and accept fairly well the responsibility for a task, provided that it is definitely laid out. They do not, however, add anything to the discussion during the meetings. Their conversation during the whole meeting is usually limited to "Yes" and "No," unless they are asked a question. One of the other members always is perfectly willing to talk, but his discussion usually mirrors something somebody else has said and does not advance the discussion. The fourth member is somewhat of a pessimistic, cynical critic, always having some fault to find with suggestions that are made but never offering anything better. A very important matter comes up which has to be decided within the next three or four days. It requires the gathering of considerable information and the careful discussion of the implications involved and the selection of a method of procedure that will probably have to remain in force for at least a year, perhaps longer. You plan for a committee meeting for Wednesday afternoon to present the problem and to divide the tasks, and a final committee meeting on the following Monday to settle the matter.

Questions

1. How far would you be justified in mapping out beforehand a definite mode of procedure and assigning tasks to each one?

2. How far should you try so to present your material that you make the others think that they are having a share in suggesting a scheme?
3. Since the matter is of such importance, would it be wiser for you to dispense with the preliminary meeting, gather the material needed yourself, present it at the Monday meeting, very carefully showing the implications as far as you can discover them in a definite procedure?
4. Would it be a good suggestion to get the material gathered by Saturday, give each member a copy, and tell him to work out a definite procedure, and then when you come to the meeting on Monday to pick out the best parts of each person's suggestion and make up a final plan?
5. Supposing that there were two diametrically opposed plans suggested, would it be wise to arrange a sort of debate between the two members involved with the other three members of the committee as judges?
6. It is possible for a group to develop a product which is different from the sum of the parts produced by the individual members? How do you explain this?
7. Can people be trained for committee procedure? Is there any age limit beyond which people cannot be trained to adjust to committee situations?

2. WHEN YOU GROW UP

In a large university recently one of the local student organizations made arrangements to bring in a rather radical speaker to give a talk on present conditions in Russia, with implications for the present situation in the United States. When the committee from the organization took the proposed program to the President, he said he was perfectly willing to have the man come and speak at the university, provided the committee also made arrangements that one of the local professors of political science should also be present and present the other side of the case.

Questions

1. Should it be necessary for students to secure the approval of the administrative officers before holding the meeting?
2. Suppose the meeting had not been held on the campus, should they be required to get permission?
3. What was the result of having the faculty representative present? How do students learn to think for themselves? Can universities assist them in this process?

3. RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN SCHOOL

The community of Commonwealth, with ten thousand people, was preparing to enjoy a good scrap. A committee of ministers, representing most of the churches of the town, had been joined by a number of leading citizens in a petition for religious education upon school time and for school credit, to be given in churches under conditions of teacher training, curricular selection, and examinations which would be set up by the school board. This was intended to keep the quality of the work on a par with that done in the traditional curriculum. Certain of the churches opposed the plan, and many of the citizens felt that it involved a violation of the separation of church and state, which they wished to see fundamental in the educational organization. The superintendent took the attitude that it was not his affair. He said to the school board that he would follow their recommendation. The board was divided. Letters appeared in the community paper from advocates of both sides. This was shortly before the school board election, and it was felt that the election might rest upon this issue.

Questions

1. Suppose that the group desiring such training should prevail by a slight majority. What would be the attitude of the remaining citizens of the community toward school affairs? Toward churches? Would this be desirable? What

determines whether or not a majority vote can be a basis of action?
2. How useful would the techniques proposed by Sheffield and Miss Follett prove in such a divided community?
3. Would it make any difference whether processes of group discussion were started before or after the appearance of such letters in the newspaper? Why?
4. What difference is there between a compromise and an integration?
5. In what way might the superintendent have offered expert guidance that would have been within his function?
6. Suggest the cautions which the leader of a public discussion of such a theme would have to bear in mind.

4. REFORMERS AND THE SCHOOLS

The superintendent bowed the lady out of the office with a conventional smile. "That makes three of them I've had this morning," he said, when she was safely out of hearing. "The first one wanted to distribute material about cigarettes. The second one wanted to organize a society of Sir Galahad. Why in the world can't people mind their own business? I suppose they're good enough people, some of them, but the world would be better off without so many persons trying to do it good." He sighed, and turned back to the plans for the new building project on which he was working.

Questions

1. What are some of the psychological factors which may account for an enthusiasm for reform projects?
2. What would be the best way for a superintendent to deal with persons representing each of these interests?
3. If it were not for such persons who express concern for values which seem to them important, would school superintendents find themselves giving all of their attention to matters of the mechanics of a system and neglecting the fundamental objectives? What psychological factors

would be involved in such a distribution of attention? How can it be prevented?

5. A LEADER OF LEADERS

The newly elected superintendent was talking with his predecessor. The system had been run along very autocratic lines. The superintendent felt that he was responsible for the school system and he made the decisions. The force of his personality was such that he was able to win the support of a large majority and able to overrule the protests in minorities.

The new superintendent objected. "Of course, I may be wrong," he said, "but it seems to me that democracy is as necessary in the running of a school as in a government. I am sure I'm not omniscient. There are a great many things which I can learn from teachers and parents, and certainly from pupils. I don't mean, of course, to turn over administrative detail to them, but it does seem to me that they ought to be responsible for making all the important decisions in policy. I think of myself as an expert standing ready to give them the information which they lack, so that they can make the wisest decisions. I believe the decisions of the group will be wiser than the decisions which I, as an individual, might be able to make."

The older man shook his head emphatically. "No, sir, you're absolutely mistaken. People want to follow a leader. They don't want to make decisions themselves. They will think you don't know where you're going and that you are a weak personality if you try those tactics. Besides, your psychology is wrong. The majority of people in a community have an I. Q. of 100 or below. They can't think through an involved question of policy. They read the tabloid newspapers and go to the movies, and that's the limit of their intellectual efforts. If psychology has taught us anything in the last twenty years, it is that social institutions must be run by the few who have ability and not by the common herd."

Questions

1. How do the products of group thinking compare with the products of the average individual of the group and with those of the best individual in the group?
2. What are the facts with reference to the distribution of intelligence?
3. How far do the decisions which must be made require intelligence? How far do they depend upon other factors? Are these other factors likely to be positively correlated with intelligence?
4. What do social psychologists say about the psychology of leadership? Upon what evidence does this rest? What would it mean in the case of the superintendent?
5. What attitudes in addition to those mentioned are likely to be taken by teachers, pupils, and citizens as a consequence of each of the proposed methods of procedure? Would these influence learning? Would they influence the readiness with which the community accepted progressive ideas?

6. A TALE OF TWO CITIES

Two communities needed new high schools. In the New Jersey community the Board of Education took careful pains to set the stage before making any proposals. They quietly investigated the present high school situation, had a survey prepared ostensibly for another purpose, had plans drawn for new buildings to cost $200,000, drew up a proposal for the necessary bond issue, and then with a blast of newspaper publicity, suddenly requested the coöperation of the voters of the community. The time before election was very short, but a group of citizens opposing the plan managed to get themselves organized. They also contributed newspaper articles. They got hold of influential groups in the city and the fight waxed warm for ten days. The issue was defeated by a slight majority. As a result of the conflict, the community was

divided rather sharply into two sections. The number opposing the new building increased slightly during the year, and the Board realized that it was impossible to get favorable action. Later other attempts were made, but almost invariably defeated. After seven years the community succeeded in getting an appropriation for a new high school, but even then with the active hostility of a large group.

A Connecticut community at about the same time found itself in need of a new school. In this case the Board members suggested that they take no steps about providing for a new school without taking the whole community with them. They, therefore, brought together groups of citizens to discuss the adequacy of the present high school plant. Local groups were invited to study phases of the present high school situation and to compare their community with outside communities. No plans were drawn except on the blackboard, and these in discussion groups. As time went on the opinion of the citizens crystallized and they began to talk in terms of the things they would need in their new high school. Some, of course, wanted a theater, others a gymnasium, others laboratory equipment, others shop equipment. As these features were brought together, it made a building far more formidable than the Board of Education had deemed it possible to construct. Finally, the motion for its construction was made by a man who had been at first one of the opponents of the plan, but with the express understanding that the sum voted should not be used unless it was found absolutely necessary in order to include certain features which he and the community had come to desire.

Questions

1. Would the plan to carry the community by a whirlwind campaign usually fail as did the one in New Jersey? Would it usually leave the same divided community? How do you account for it in this case?
2. What should be the function of the superintendent in such a campaign as that carried on in Connecticut?

3. Can the judgment of the community as a whole be trusted? What other alternatives are there? What are the merits of each?

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XVIII. SELECTION AND MEASUREMENT OF TEACHERS

1. SELECTION OF TEACHERS

The Superintendent of Schools at Elton needs five new teachers for the coming year, three in the elementary and two in the high school. He is 150 miles from the university from which he is accustomed to get his high school teachers, and about 50 miles from the normal school where he looks for elementary school teachers.

Questions

1. Should he go to these places to interview candidates? If he does go, how should he compare those whom he has met with those from whom he has letters of application?
2. What information shall he ask the applicants?
3. How shall he determine where to put the teacher after he has hired her?
4. Should he seek to get men or women teachers for the high school?
5. In deciding between candidates, how can he determine what weight to give to the various factors?

2. WHAT CAN A TEACHER TEACH?

Miss Hughes was hired to teach chemistry and physics in a Western high school. She had majored in those subjects in a university and had been teaching them for one year in another high school. When she arrived the first week in September, the superintendent met her with the announcement that he found it necessary to shift the program and she was to teach physiology the second semester. She objected, but he said there

was no other possible way to handle the situation. She said the only previous course that she had had in physiology had been one she had taken in high school, and besides, she had never cared for physiology, anyway. The superintendent said that she could easily work up the course in the five months before the second semester.

Questions

1. Is it necessary for a teacher to be interested in the subject she is teaching? Is it possible to develop an interest in the subject? What suggestions would you give to Miss Hughes for attempting to build up an interest?
2. How much preparation is necessary before she begins to teach the course? Can she be satisfied with general acquaintanceship with a couple of textbooks and some references, and then hope to work out the course with the pupils?
3. What are the points that Miss Hughes should keep in mind in working up the material for this course? How can she determine what material to include?
4. How can she determine in what order to take up the material? Since she has never taught this subject before, should she follow the textbook and use the same order of topics as given in the book?

3. TEACHER IMPROVEMENT

The new salary schedule proposed increases in salary for persons with additional training. Several of the Board members objected strenuously. It was pointed out that those who had been to school longest were not necessarily the best teachers. On the contrary, some of them had been to school because they couldn't get jobs teaching. It was pointed out that while Miss M., the supervisor, undoubtedly stood at the top both in training and teaching ability, that her training was mostly incidental. She would have been a good teacher anyhow. Miss X was undoubtedly one of the best teachers

in the school system and she had never had any training except one year beyond high school.

Questions

1. How far are teachers born rather than made? What evidence is there?
2. What kind of training would be most likely to produce better teachers, judging by the evidence available from the learning of other skills?
3. What is the objection to the kind of evidence offered in the discussion before the Board?

4. TOOLS AND GOODS

Two teachers had met on the train which was carrying them toward the great city where they were to spend the summer in study at the university.

"What are you going to take this summer?" asked one.

"There are two or three courses in my particular field of mathematics teaching," said the other, "and then I think I want a general course in philosophy of education to help me understand what I am driving at."

The first teacher said, "I want to choose my courses on the basis of the men who are giving them. It isn't what they teach, but the person who is doing the teaching that I want to get. Given the right teacher, it doesn't make any difference what the course is called. Last summer I took psychology with Professor X——, that did for me just what you expect to get out of philosophy."

"I don't see how it could," said the first teacher. "Psychology gives us methods and tools with which we can work, but philosophy determines the ends and objects toward which we shall use them."

Questions

1. In what psychological terms is it possible to explain the feeling that it matters more who teaches a course than

the content which is supposedly covered in that course? Do you think this is a valid point of view? Why?

2. What has been the historical relation between the psychology which the educators believed and the objectives which they set? How far were the objectives of Locke, Rousseau, Herbart, Freud, Thorndike, produced by the way in which they believed the mind to operate?
3. What analogies have been used to explain how the mind works? What is the influence of such analogies upon the aims and objectives of education? What analogy seems to you most adequate?
4. Is it possible for psychology to open the door to new objectives which men have not believed feasible? How might this be true in connection with such social problems as war, poverty, crime, and race prejudice?

5. CHANGES

Walter Jones had just graduated from the State University, and had been appointed Superintendent of Schools in a community of five thousand. He succeeded a principal who had been there a good many years and who was well liked but very inefficient. The system of records, reports, supervision, and finance was far removed from the ideals set up in Mr. Jones' training. He found some teachers who had been in the community for years, but very few who had better than normal school training. One teacher did have a Master's Degree.

Questions

1. At what point might Mr. Jones best begin to institute changes? Why?
2. Would it make much difference whether suggestions for change came from him or from members of the staff? Why?
3. What attitudes will be taken by the teachers toward Mr. Jones before he comes to the community at all? Why?
4. In the first meeting which they have together, the teachers

will carry away certain attitudes toward the new superintendent. What will be some of the major factors determining these attitudes? How will these attitudes differ, the impressions differ, for example, as between the M. A. teacher and the teacher who never finished normal school?

5. What would be the consequences if Mr. Jones were to help them appreciate him by pointing out casually from time to time, his university achievements in the classroom, athletics, etc.?
6. How much confidence ought Mr. Jones to have in his first impressions of these teachers? Why?
7. Would it be wise to introduce a test issue at the very beginning so that he might see just which teachers are likely to be with him, and which are to be his problems?

6. HAPPY TEACHERS

A superintendent was interested in finding ways to improve the morale of his teachers. Some of them were but little interested in teaching for its own sake, and had chosen this profession because of the relative high salaries and long vacations. As a result they were inclined to evade responsibilities and to be antagonistic to proposals for professional improvement. Then there were the teachers who seemed to be quite successful in their classroom work but who did not get along well with other members of the staff. Feelings of jealousy, of being discriminated against, of bitterness over salary increases and promotion, of over-use of authority were not uncommon and made it difficult to integrate the work of the school as a whole. Many teachers were unable to fit into the community life. There was a tendency to feel that they were being classified as "school teachers" with all the undesirable connotations often attached to such a stereotype.

The superintendent realized that his staff conditions were not markedly different from those in other similar communities, but he felt that the solution of some of these problems would help to reduce the amount of turn-over.

Questions

1. What are the factors which make for happiness in vocational adjustment?
2. What suggestions have been found effective in reducing such difficulties as are described? How should the superintendent proceed?

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XIX. QUESTIONS OF GENERAL PSYCHOLOGICAL INTEREST

The following questions are suggested as typical of certain interests of students in the field of psychology which are not directly and immediately related to professional problems. They are questions which many people are interested in investigating simply to find out about them. They represent academic and cultural and intellectually curious concerns. Others might be added almost indefinitely.

1. What is meant by instinct? Does man have instincts in the sense in which lower animals possess them? Is man's behavior best interpreted in terms of specific connections of a reflex type or of broad satisfiers and annoyers of the drive urge or wish type?

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2. Where did we get our original nature? Why do we happen to have certain physiological mechanisms and certain consequent psychological reactions? Why do we feel un-

comfortable when waiters disapprove and why do we enjoy the singing of a warbler rather than the gobble of the turkey cock? Will training the race add to the original ability of its descendants?

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XX. EVALUATION

1. IN RETROSPECT

The case here presented for examination is that of your own course in Educational Psychology. It is suggested that you think back over the experiences you have had in this course, the difficulties in adjustment which you faced in trying to utilize this somewhat different approach, factors which you learned and those which you failed to learn, the attitudes which developed, and the probable contribution of this course to your professional undertaking. You are urged to be rigorously frank in your analysis of yourself, of the content of the course, and the methods of study utilized.

Questions

1. To what extent has the course led to the development of a scientific attitude toward educational problems? Why?
2. How can you tell? How could this contribution have been increased?
3. To what extent has the course aided you in finding solutions for the practical problems of your profession? Why do you think so? How could this contribution have been increased?
4. To what extent have you learned to recognize a problem in a situation, to analyze this problem, and to go about solving it? Give reasons for your answer. How might this learning have been made more valuable?
5. What other values do you feel should be achieved by a professional course in educational psychology? To what extent were these present in the course you are now completing? How would your knowledge of psychology suggest that these values be achieved?

APPENDIX

A. THE A B C OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY *

Educational psychology is concerned with those contributions of a psychological sort which can be of service to educators. Every problem with which educators wrestle can be thought of as in some sense psychological. Its solution will surely involve changes in human beings. It is the business of psychology, as yet far from accomplished, to understand those changes.

Despite this inclusive charter, educational psychology may be outlined in a very simple and surprisingly complete fashion. Of course the educational psychologist, as such, faces a very complicated field. First of all there are the experimental findings to be critically examined. Upon most important problems the experimental data are still few and ambiguous. Out of these experiments come hypotheses. As generalizations are validated the task becomes one of application of principles in new situations. But if one is not a psychologist and is anxious to understand the main generalizations about human beings which are likely to have a bearing upon educational activities, then the gist of the matter can be briefly stated.

There is first the general question which troubled a naïve but brilliant student who said, "I want to read something which will help me understand what makes us go." There are two types of answer which psychology gives. Each supplements the other. One describes very *specific behaviors*. If the

* The writer has occasionally been asked to outline in thirty minutes the contribution of educational psychology for persons not technically or academically concerned with psychology. After overcoming the mild irritation which such a request sets up, he discovered to his surprise that it could almost be done. This is offered as one such attempt which may be useful as a statement to be assigned at the beginning and end of introductory courses in educational psychology.

knee is struck in such a fashion the foot jerks. A pin prick elicits a start and a howl. If it is cold one shivers. We breathe. These may be called reflexes. They seem to involve a simple and direct connection of a physiological sort between something which happens to us and something which we do. Perhaps there are hundreds of them. The second type of answer deals with a few fundamental *drives,* or *trends,* which are vaguer, and less tied up with any specific act or part of the body. They are with us always and they are quite unwilling to be denied. They lead to a restless series of behaviors designed to bring about change from the unsatisfactory state of affairs in a given direction of adjustment. There are a thousand ways of satisfying hunger, and perhaps even more specific behaviors any one of which might be employed in satisfying an urge toward mastery and success. For understanding people, nothing seems more important than insight into the ways in which they are moved by these fundamental psychological pressures. Six major trends may be mentioned.

1. Human beings tend to behave in ways involving movement from physical deprivations (pain, hunger, sex demands, needs for sleep), toward physical well-being, euphoria.
2. Human beings tend to behave in ways involving movement from failure, thwarting, disappointment, toward success, mastery, and achievement.
3. Human beings tend to behave in ways involving movement from being ignored or looked down upon, toward being looked up to, recognized, approved, admired.
4. Human beings tend to behave in ways involving movement from being unwanted toward being loved and given intimacy, tenderness, and a sense of belonging.
5. Human beings tend to behave in ways involving movement from being worried, anxious, fearful, toward release, security and peace of mind.
6. Human beings tend to behave in ways involving movement from being bored, finding life dull and monotonous, toward adventure, new experience and zestful activity.

No one understands to-day just how these drives operate. It is almost impossible to picture any specific nervous con-

nections which make recognition, for example, vital. Yet the child who is looked down upon because of poor clothes, or depraved conduct, or low marks or an athletic failure or a lost job, or an insane relative, or a physical handicap or any of innumerable causes, expressed by any of innumerable stimuli, may respond in a predictable fashion. He may be relieved by catching a big fish, wearing a new button, joining another club, making more money, winning a teacher's smile, or throwing a fast curve. The content of the situation arousing the deprivation, and the content of the situation through which he wins approval, is irrelevant. It may be changed indefinitely. Only the form, significance, and meaning seem to matter. Failure to move in the direction of any of these trends may usually be found at the bottom of most abnormal behavior and much delinquency. The success of a school or community may be charted by the opportunity that it provides for achieving growth toward euphoria, mastery, recognition, love, security, and zest.

The next major question concerns ways in which human behavior can be influenced or changed. It asks how we learn. The answer of psychology can be summarized in about seven principles, most of which are already familiar although perhaps not explicit. These are not laws in the sense of absolute sequences. They are like the proverb. "A soft answer turneth away wrath." They hold true, by and large, in teaching situations. Their neural mechanisms may some day be understood, but are vague, hypothetical, and conflicting now. The principles are useful, however, in influencing behavior.

First there is the principle of *response to situations*. Whatever is done may be thought of as a way of reacting to a situation which existed inside the individual and outside of him. To change the behavior, merely change the situation. Change the book and the response alters. Feed the child ice-cream and his demand abates. Invent automobiles and new series of behavior follow. Next, there is the principle of *use and disuse*. If a response is customarily made it tends to recur. It may even have a dynamic or urgent quality which makes us want it to recur. The cigar after dinner and the "Once upon a time" which must be told just so to a small child are not tolerant of interference. If a response is not made for a

long time it may be forgotten or partially forgotten. Skills unused grow rusty. There is nothing new or startling about such a principle. The third and perhaps most important principle of all psychology, the principle of *effect,* describes the tendency to repeat responses which are successful and satisfying, while avoiding responses that bring failure or annoyance. Even a worm can learn not to repeat certain behavior which is annoying and the most erudite philosopher will seldom fail to repeat the idea which struck him and his associates happily. Probably it matters less how often we practice most behavior than it does how we feel about it. Another principle closely related to effect is that of *readiness* or mind set. Readiness determines (a) the particular things in the total environment to which an individual will respond at a particular time and (b) the effect of his responses. A mother wakes at the slight cry of her infant but sleeps undisturbed by the roar of near-by elevated trains. A real-estate agent, a landscape painter, and a military officer would each have a different set of impressions after a walk through the country. We also note that responses satisfying at one time or to one person may be annoying at another time or to a second person. Seven is a satisfying response to three and four if the indicated operation was addition, but it is annoying if the operation should have been multiplication. A beginner in golf might be highly pleased at a particular shot while a champion would almost certainly be annoyed if he made a similar drive. The nature of readiness is determined by our drives and the effects accompanying previous responses. The fifth principle is the observation that when in difficulty, a great many responses may be tried until one is hit upon which brings release. Call it the principle of *trials.* It applies to a cat trying to get out of a cage. It is illustrated in a mathematics problem to which one solution after another is attempted until one works. It occurs when in an endeavor to overcome some lack, the person compensates in other fields or tries rationalizing about the situation to persuade himself that all is well, or projects the difficulty out onto others who have not given him a fair deal. Most thinking starts from some drive which runs into an obstacle and sets us in accord with this principle making trials of various solutions in imagination. The sixth may be designated the prin-

ciple of *specific learning*. It reminds us that we learn just what we learn. If a child learns to obey mother it learns not obedience, but to obey mother in certain circumstances and in others which strike the child as sufficiently similar. If the proper response to a word in print has been learned the response has not necessarily been learned to the same word on a blackboard or in script. Improvement in geometric thinking may occur without noticeable effect upon economic thinking. Finally, there is the widely applicable principle of *association*. Other terms like "associative shift," "conditioning" or "redintegration" represent various precise definitions. But they all agree that a burned child dreads the fire. If a child hears the word "fun" along with a certain experience, then the word will come, in time, to awaken a response originally connected with the "fun" situation. If a man is injured by a member of another racial group he may be antagonistic to all others who remind him of the first. If a dog is given a shock when a bell rings, later the bell alone may start an endeavoring to escape. If the chickens are fed when a certain door slams, they will gather at the gate when they hear that door slam. That seems to be the way our meanings come.

The third major contribution of psychology to education emphasizes some conditions within which we work in bringing about changes. These all concern individual differences. Three principles will summarize the contributions of educational psychology in this area. First there is the principle of *maturation*. People grow up. As a child one necessarily thinks as a child. Adults can learn better than they could in the first ten or fifteen years. It would take many hours to teach a child at four something learned rapidly at fourteen or forty. Not only speed but power is involved. More complex things can be mastered by mature persons. Second, there is the widely applicable principle of *"normal" distribution* of individual traits in a random group. In all characteristics people differ. In many traits the distribution is fairly regular, a few at each extreme, and the great mass near the average. "Types" seldom are found with sharp distinctions between one group and another. Usually there is the continuous distribution from one end of the scale to the other. Children differ in height, strength, ability to learn mathematics, ease with which they

become annoyed, beauty, resistance to tuberculosis, sensitiveness to rhythm, and so on. Every contemplated change in behavior should be planned with due account for the ways in which individual behavior already differs and in which a certain change is easier in one person than in another. Finally there is the principle of *stability of ability* to learn. The temperature of the room, the too-green banana for breakfast, the feeling of fatigue from previous tasks, the excitement over the game, all of these loom much larger in popular thought than in actual potency. The ability to learn, given sufficient drive, stays fairly constant through the stress of circumstances.

Is there anything else? That seems about to cover the general principles. Of course there are multitudes of special applications and of experimental results. Wherever a problem has been experimentally studied, the fact that certain procedures led to certain consequences is more convincing than any amount of argument from general principles. Cheating, for example, is found to be less common in schools using progressive education methods. Perhaps this would be expected, perhaps not, but the facts stand. Year by year the experimental evidence accumulates. Better and better controls are established. Fewer moot questions of procedure have to be left to inference from the above principles. The summary, however, of these experiments is a volume, not an essay. And, at best, there will be a multitude of choices to be made by educators on the basis, not of specific evidence, but of sound psychological thinking.

The great remaining task is, however, the application of the principles. Simply stated, the principles themselves become so obvious as to make a course in educational psychology, apart from specific experimental findings, seem ridiculous ado about the self-evident. The problem in training educators is to make the principles function. Specific learning may be obvious in the child learning to read but ignored in the adult being taught to be more righteous. Individual differences may be recognized in intelligence but overlooked in motives. The principle of effect may receive consideration in athletics but be slighted or unrecognized in English or science. A major task of the teacher of educational psychology in training per-

sons unlikely to be psychologists, seems to be that of getting a minimum of fairly obvious generalizations about human beings to function vigorously in such actual situations as hiring teachers, calming irate parents, adjusting confused adolescents, preventing industrial conflicts, tending babies, writing textbooks, planning class hikes, and eliminating crime. If the learning of a general principle only carried with it mastery over all the situations in which the principle might be useful, how simply we all might become geniuses!

B. PRINCIPLES OF MENTAL HYGIENE

1. A sound physical basis makes easier the development of constructive emotional responses. Rest, exercise, sleep, play, sunshine, reasonable diet, with regular physical examinations are helpful. Unhappiness and poor health travel together.
2. Recognition of reality as the state of affairs with which one must deal, changing it perhaps, but not ignoring it or pretending that the facts have altered themselves to fit wishes, is fundamental to mental health. When things can't be changed, effort is better used at making the best of what is, rather than at bewailing what is not.
3. The most wholesome enterprises are those into which the whole self can enter without scruples or conflicts.
4. When conflict arises among desires and standards, a solution often can be found which satisfies all demands. It is worth the effort and intelligence to find a way to keep one's cake and eat it too.
5. Unnecessary and wasteful conflict may arise between genuine desires and standards which people feel they "ought to" accept. These standards, however much they may be rationalized, may have little root in the experience of the persons themselves, but may be simple acceptance of the mores prevailing during childhood. In such cases integration demands rejection of the imposed standard and creation of new ones more appropriate to reality. Perhaps what you are is preferable to what you have always thought you ought to be.

6. Comparison and competition is usually a vicious habit. The worth of any mode of living can be found more happily apart from the endeavor to surpass some one else. There is all the difference between heaven and hell in the distinction between trying to do something well and trying to beat someone else at it.
7. Each individual can discover through tests, ratings, interviews, and especially through his own past experience, some things he does better than he does other things. Usually greater satisfaction comes from achieving within one's range of ability, than from failing attempts at unattainable goals. Choose, don't drift.
8. A strong urge toward vague yet marvelous greatness may often be recognized as compensation for some sense of lack, inferiority, or deprivation which is emotionally strong although practically of little consequence. A demand for perfection at one point may be the unfortunate result of failure in a different area of life.
9. Few if any situations constitute hopeless handicaps. It is always possible to imagine someone, no more gifted, but feeling differently about things, working out a very satisfactory solution. What happens to one doesn't matter—only how one feels about it, counts.
10. Some people enjoy the sympathy they obtain so much that they continue to try to deserve this commiseration. Ailments may be exaggerated, busyness aggravated, minor troubles talked about until they seem large, because of the satisfaction of having others seem solicitous. Don't enjoy your misery too much.
11. It is frequently possible to become aware of previously unrecognized prejudices or weaknesses in oneself, by noticing the behavior of others which arouses most irritation or most unusual emotional excitement in one's own reactions. Be suspicious of the points to which you continually react with strong emotional feeling. They probably aren't what they seem to you to be.
12. There is a common tendency to attribute major responsibility for one's likes or dislikes to the persons or things liked or disliked, rather than to recognize these feelings as characteristic only of the one who feels them. A per-

son's judgments of others tell more about himself than about the others.

13. Growth comes most easily to the person who can ignore the common impulsion to save his face, to show that he has been right from the beginning, to try to make the other person admit fault or error first. Mistakes are occasions for learning, not for deceit or lamentation.

14. Day dreams about the future are not harmful when they end in carefully planned and executed "next steps." Don't let the engine race, put in the clutch.

15. The emotional maturity, which enables one to face the world alone, sufficient for whatever may happen, to make the best of it, independent of any particular person or type of persons, is probably a result of successfully assuming this self-reliance in many specific situations over a period of years.

16. Some people are handicapped by the false assumption that they have problems and peculiarities which normal persons do not have. Human nature and experience is such that few serious problems arise which have not been faced more or less victoriously by thousands of other persons. Don't be ashamed of your feelings.

17. Disagreeable obligations are made worse by attempts to ignore them, or put them off. Done promptly and with dispatch, as a matter of course, they consume much less energy. The more disagreeable, the more promptly it should be done.

18. Darwin and others have avoided some of the common consequences of prejudice, by looking with especial care for evidence against the theories and practices which they tended most warmly to espouse. A strong emotional preference may be evidence of inadequate rational support. Ignorance attacked gives forth emotion.

19. Persistent patterns, such, for example, as a preference for the radical, a dislike of the new, an aversion to some persons others admire, a fondness for actions others eschew, loyalty to unusual causes, etc., always have some reason for existence. Often the real reason is neither obvious nor connected with the objective value of the pat-

tern response. When the behavior drive is thoroughly understood, it may or may not seem advisable to retain it.

20. Some people are able, by a conscious attempt to see the humor in each situation in which they might become worked up, to keep perspective. Others get a somewhat similar objectivity by imagining how trivial certain matters seem as viewed from ten, or fifty, or a hundred years later.

21. It is possible definitely to limit the pleasant practice of reliving past glories and achievement. Better mental health seems to come from creating new experiences each new day, rather than from romanticizing the past. Don't rest on your laurels. Tackle the next thing.

22. Love contributes most to those who do not have to gratify their demands for recognition and importance, demands for protection and security, demands for romantic superhuman perfection, demands for effusive sympathy, through the love relationship. Be grown up if you would discover true love.

23. Making things, writing, drawing, dancing, creating sometimes for one's own taste alone, are among the commonly accepted aids to satisfactory living. Don't be dependent on others for your tastes.

24. Greatest happiness seems to come, not with static achievement, but in the very process of moving from discomfort toward euphoria, from being ignored toward being admired, from being disliked toward being loved, from failing toward succeeding, from monotony toward new experiences, from worry toward security. It is possible to evaluate any person's joy in life by some such criteria, and often possible to achieve greater satisfaction by conscious effort to bring about such movement.

25. It is usually easier to change a habit by altering the cue or stimulus situation than by conscious effort to build a new response while the old setting persists unchanged. Change in surroundings, conversations, companions, reading, recreations, jobs, may be wholesome if these are useful steps in a plan, not simply evasions and running away.

26. The fear of causing others discomfort may masquerade as kindness when it really ends in the most cruel suffer-

ing. Cutting the dog's tail off an inch at a time is not true consideration. "The chief qualification for a successful administrator is the capacity to inflict pain."

27. The plea that one meant well does not undo the effects of any blundering. The obligation to be skillful is as great as the obligation to be good-hearted. "If wishes were horses——"

28. Living other people's lives is a dangerous experiment for everyone concerned. Be careful in doing unto others as you would have them do unto you; they may not have the same tastes.

29. The person who blames his heredity, the way his parents treated him, his teachers, his luck, the social order, the trivial events of the day, his associates, or fate in general for the mishaps of his life, may be surrendering his major hope; that is, intelligent reconstruction of his own responses.

30. Headaches, homesickness, temper outbursts, crying spells and many other disorders may, if they succeed once, continue to come at "convenient" times.

31. The most troublesome fear is the fear of a fear. Getting to the bottom of the uneasy feeling may dispel it.

32. The friend who is most helpful may be critical rather than flattering, abrupt rather than tactful. Objectivity is a better gift than sympathy; insight is more to be desired than advice.

33. Sensitiveness to criticism is not a mark of fine breeding. It is often the result of brooding over slights, self-pity, working up feelings over fancied wrongs, generally misapplying energy in melancholy pleasures. Success in social relationships is the best stimulant to a healthier attitude.

34. The most satisfactory life attitudes include a place for difficult, tiresome, monotonous, and unheroic activities. Sometimes the satisfaction which carries one through such enterprises comes from the remote end which is being sought. Sometimes satisfaction comes from the ever-varying details, from new ways of getting at the job, creative elaborations. Usually success in doing the dull commonplaces of existence is a matter of simple habituation, a result of many refusals to give up and run away.

35. Smug satisfaction with everything as it is, is the lowest level. The neurotic has progressed at least to the point of being restless and unhappy about things as they are. At the highest level is the well-adjusted person, freely using his powers without internal friction, in the creation of a world nearer heart's desire.

C. SUGGESTIONS FOR LEADING EFFECTIVE GROUP THINKING

1. Help all to view the process not as a debate, but a quest. Each, including the leader, should expect to come away with his viewpoint modified, with more of truth than he brought.
2. Help each person to do his own thinking. To "save time" by telling the group the best answer is usually to waste time from the viewpoint of developing maximum growth in each person. "A poor thing, but mine own."
3. Center upon real differences. Avoid argument over technicalities. Do not permit, "taking a point of view just for the sake of argument." Hew to reality. There are enough real differences if the matter is worth discussing at all.
4. The more concrete, the more vivid, the more recent, the more objective and practical, the experiences used in discussion, the better.
5. When general and abstract problems are proposed, ask for illustrations. Embody general issues in concrete cases. "Do you remember a specific instance?"
6. Avoid beginning with the issues upon which prejudice is strongest. Let the group gain some experiences and confidence in dealing with lesser differences, first.
7. Share with the group, at the beginning, a rough outline of the process, so they will feel that they "know where they are going." This is in terms of steps of process, rather than of outcomes, of questions to be raised rather than answers to be attained.
8. Set an expectation in the group that they are to measure progress by improvement in their group technique, as truly as by questions answered or new ideas obtained.

9. Avoid formalism. Let the outline be flexible. Don't steer too much. Let the group follow new leads which interest them.
10. It is often well to call attention to digressions, letting the group decide how far they will pursue each side-path before going back to the main issue or on to others. It is not always desirable to return. The questions that arise may lead relentlessly on to others, very profitably.
11. Proposals for action may well begin and close the work of the group. This keeps "feet on the ground." Theories are discussed in relation to what can be done about them.
12. Avoid tangles over words and definitions. Get some illustrations and go ahead. The meaning of any term is not its definition but the many concrete experiences which have become tied up with the general phrases.
13 Avoid covering the issue over with a superficial agreement expressed in blanket terms. People may seem to agree on "love", "the greatest good", "efficient handling of each case", "whatever seems best under the circumstances", while really hiding their disagreements beneath such terms. These are evasions, not solutions.
14. Be alert to the need for evidence. Ask whether the evidence necessary for an adequate answer, is present in the group doing the discussing. If not, shift the discussion to determine what evidence is needed, how it can be obtained, and adjourn to obtain it.
15. Get evidence in the most efficient way. If a speaker or lecturer can give it most quickly, use him. If books are ready, use them. If observation and experiment are required, turn to such channels. Do not mistake massed ignorance for evidence.
16. Do not confuse authorities with evidence. Get behind the statements of experts to the data upon which the conclusions rest.
17. Distinguish, in obtaining evidence, between cases which "illustrate" and cases which "demonstrate". Consider whether the speaker has sought the best answer, or has sought support for his answer.
18. Discussion may well be opened with questions, not too personal, upon which each person may, in a few words,

contribute something. Having once taken part, future participation is more likely.

19. Draw out shy people with friendly encouragement.

20. Suggest occasionally that those who have spoken most often, give those who have not yet spoken opportunity for comment.

21. A kindly hint to those who talk too much can better be given outside the discussion meeting, in a personal way.

22. Sometimes persons with valuable ideas reluctant to participate, can be drawn in by informal conversation outside the group discussion, and by certain assignments on which the quiet person is invited to make a special contribution.

23. Get brief statements, not speeches. What is wanted is a rapid give and take, to mold the idea into a form which embodies the concerns of the entire group.

24. The leader need not comment on every contribution.

25. Use the blackboard for notes, not for a verbatim report.

26. The leader should be able to talk and to listen while writing. Let the blackboard accompany, not supersede, other activities.

27. Use the same words used by the speaker, when noting down on the blackboard, or when summarizing. Don't translate into other words, even for the sake of logic.

28. Use especial care in stating minority positions, or points of view not approved by the leader. Give it as the representative of that viewpoint would like to hear it given.

29. Summarize often. Point out how the discussion started, suggest proposals and considerations on all sides.

30. Blackboard summaries may often be facilitated by "keying". Put some figure or symbol in front of points which hang together, which are part of the same argument. Group different proposals all of which embody one general point of view. When a new proposal is really an echo of one already on the board, place a + or an ! in front of that proposal rather than rewriting or ignoring it.

31. In summaries, bring together the areas upon which the group are all agreed. Have it clear that no further discussion is needed at those points. Thus clear the way for real difficulties.

32. Work for consensus rather than majority control. One

man against a hundred may still have enough of right in his idea so that the hundred should make some modification in their attitudes.

33. Seek integration rather than compromise. Do not encourage "giving up" a point of view for the sake of harmony or quick decision. Hold to the point until the truth and value of each individual has been included in the final proposal. Discard only non-essentials.

34. Keep a "reserve list" for problems raised during the discussion which cannot well be faced until after the business in hand is settled. Seeing the problem written down for future consideration may free the proponent's mind for the present discussion.

35. Be ready to reopen a question if new evidence appears.

36. In some long conferences upon which much depends, it sometimes becomes necessary to clear the atmosphere by a session in which each gets out into the open the fears and suspicions and resentments which have been beneath the surface, impeding group progress. After such a frank truth-party the movement ahead is apt to be enormous.

37. The best hope for reaching an integration within the group is some overarching end. This is an end which all of the group care about enough so that they want to reconcile their differences and to achieve that higher good. Often this is a group action. The group that must act as a group, have this need urging them on to find some way out.

38. Trust the group. There is no person in it who is not superior to the rest in at least one respect. The experience of all is richer than the experience of any. The group as a whole can see further and more truly than its best member.

D. SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR COUNSELING

1. The best attitude is one of cheerful, thoughtful objectivity, avoiding pronounced sympathizing, condemnation, or an air of easy optimism, slap-em-on-the-back, etc.

2. Suggestion is temporarily useful if transference is effective, but it should not be confused with a real solution.
3. The problem as presented will seem to the person in trouble insoluble. That's why he is in trouble. A ready acceptance of the picture as he sees it would close the case. Try to see other people in each of the predicaments and see how they might solve them. All problems are essentially subjective.
4. Expect resistance in dealing with problems most deeply concerned. Suspect resistance in tardiness, absence from appointment, talk about irrelevant matters, sudden break in the conversation, sudden forgetting in the middle of a sentence or argument, counter-attacks on counselor or others.
5. Make no mystery. Endeavor to guide the counselee into insight at all points. The aim of the talk is for him to see, not for you to see.
6. Do not offer authoritative explanations. By the use of other cases and of questions, build up in the counselee his own reasonable interpretation of his behavior.
7. Expect patterns. Among the more common are dependence, fear of the new, avoidance of people, breakdowns, running away from a situation, projecting the blame onto an individual of a given type, displacement making a mountain out of a given sort of molehill, etc.
8. Do not give advice. Give the experience of yourself and others so far as it is useful, taking particular care to emphasize the differences in the situation faced by the counselee. No two persons have faced exactly the same situation. What the counselee needs is ability to handle situations himself, not advice to follow.
9. Be sure all available evidence is provided. If the problem is vocational, it requires extensive occupational information. Health, religion, scholastic and social guidance each have bodies of essential data. Experts may be utilized.
10. Transference may be built up through success in minor adjustments at the beginning.
11. Avoid being maneuvered into emotional behavior. Patients will endeavor to arouse sympathy, to shock you, to hurt you with cutting phrases, to inflate your vanity,

to get caresses, to make you pity and care for them, to win rebukes, to provoke outbursts of your own ideas, etc. Objectivity takes constant defense.

12. Take no chances on physical condition. Insist upon reliable examination and treatment. Do not take counselee's word alone.
13. Take no chances on mental examination. Secure adequate tests of intelligence or other relevant abilities—do not take merely impressions of friends or teachers.
14. Begin at some point where the counselee feels a difficulty. It may not be the root of the problem but it is the only place at which help is really wanted. It will probably lead to the major problems.
15. So far as possible where mutual adjustment is involved, work out a solution in the presence of all persons concerned. While conferences with child and parent, e.g. may be held separately it is usually desirable to have a joint conference in which all the cards are on the table and everyone clearly understands the viewpoint of every other one.
16. It is usually desirable to observe a problem child in his normal environment in the classroom, in his home, and particularly on the street and playground.
17. It is seldom possible to depend exclusively upon the readjustment of the persons and objects in the environment, or upon the new insight and attitude of the person being advised. Both are usually in need of some readjustment.
18. Questions put by the counselor early and often calling attention to possible adjustment devices, rationalization, symbolization, compensation, projection, evasion, regression, etc., help to clear out the nonsense and to make for reality. Do not insist that the mechanism is as you see it. Merely raise the question.
19. Do not let the channels of exploration be determined by the emotional reaction of the counselor. Some things may be uncomfortable but are perhaps relevant and should be included as a matter of course. It is sometimes desirable to say things which hurt the counselee. First be sure the surgery is necessary, then go ahead calmly.

20. Do not use the term "psychoanalyze" and do not attempt the psychoanalytic technique. Use experts if necessary.

21. Recognize the limitations of the layman. Consult psychiatrists. Get names and addresses of available psychiatrists from National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City.

22. It is sometimes necessary to study other persons than the one immediately involved. A problem child means at least one and probably two problem parents.

23. Try to provide opportunities for success at interesting and socially approved enterprises.

24. Avoid dependence upon verbal solutions. Get proposed solutions tested out in action.

25. Avoid pet theories, cure-alls, standard suspicions. Hunt for exceptions to theories, especially to new ones.

26. Don't try to save your own face. In many respects you may be less well adjusted than the counselee. Grow with him, don't reach down a helping hand from too high up.

27. One easy and frequently helpful step is to remove the counselee's fear that he is the only person in the world with his type of difficulty and that others will despise him for it.

28. Avoid letting the plans focus on too distant goals without adequate attention to immediate steps. Help the counselee plan on improving adjustment this week, not console himself with phantasy. The past and future exist to enrich the present.

29. Seek to develop a process which will operate in new situations, as well as to secure adjustment of the present one. Experience is continuous, not discrete.

30. Even when simple Anglo-Saxon monosyllables in active illustrative form have been used, it is usually safe to assume that the "understanding" or "reaction" of the person to whom you are talking is in large measure an unknown variable.

31. Use great care to be fair to a point of view you do not support. State it as its enthusiastic advocates would like to hear it stated. To do less is unfair and, incidentally, far less effective.

32. Watch for budding stereotypes. When you find yourself getting an "intuition" in advance of investigation, which classifies a certain person or type of behavior, note it. It may mislead you often if not discounted.

33. Single experiences do not afford ground for generalization. Vivid incidents are particularly to be distrusted. Habitual and recurring behavior is the significant source of data.

34. Regard evidence skeptically, with due regard for the legal "rules of evidence". Remember the large error in first-hand observation and the untrustworthiness of circumstantial evidence. What A tells you about B is as much or more information about A. In scientific records, confirmation by two or three disinterested persons is desirable.

35. Occasionally overhaul your motives in the counseling. Give due weight to the vicarious thrill of hearing about misdeeds, the sense of mastery, the delight in secret intimacy, the desire for affection and trust from the young, the enjoyment of a reputation. Try to keep these in proper proportion to the desire for the welfare of the counselee.

36. Avoid the tendency to encourage and discourage in accord with a pattern of behavior which *you* like best. Let each individual become what is best for him. Particularly avoid embodying your preferences in the sanctity of "race experience".

37. Encourage independence, doing what you do not approve, if it seem best to the counselee. Give as little help as is absolutely required. Constantly reduce this. If pupils constantly come back for more, consider yourself unsuccessful. Substitute self-confidence for confidence in you. The person who can get along without you is better off than any whom you "help".

38. Do not mistake the children who cause teachers trouble for the "problem children".

39. Keep confidences inviolate.

40. The balance of normality and abnormality, of satisfaction and distress in life might conceivably be none the worse if you and I were to go to a South Sea island and sun ourselves for the rest of our days.

E. SAMPLE QUESTIONS ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

One of the best methods by which a student can improve his work is for him to make up questions on the work as he goes along. This helps to bring into relief the issues of the problems and also tends to make the student more critical of his results. An even better method is for several students to share their questions with one another and to discuss them after they have all tried to answer them.

The following questions are given simply to suggest types that the student might use. There has been no attempt to make them cover the work in this book. The list does not exhaust the possibilities in the way of question form and the student is urged to try to find other ways of making objective questions. He should constantly strive to cover the application of factual material to specific problems. This is difficult to do in an objective question, but it should be the goal toward which one works. For references which will help in the construction of test questions, see the references in Case Group II.

True-false

Read each of the following statements carefully. If you think it is wholly TRUE, put a + in front of it; if you think it is partially or wholly FALSE, put a — in front of it.

1. The reasoning process of man differs decidedly in kind, as well as in degree, from that of animals.
2. Gregariousness is commonly accepted as an instinctive tendency in man.
3. Ancestry reduces the variability of offspring and determines the point about which they vary.
4. If differences in achievement are due to differences in training, equal amounts of practice should reduce the differences.
5. In the race of life, which is not to get ahead, but to get ahead of somebody, the chief determining factor is environment.

Yes-no

If you think the answer to the question is YES, draw a circle around the word YES; if you think the answer is NO, draw a circle around the word NO.

1. Are slips of the tongue held by Freud to be expressions of repressed wishes?..... YES NO
2. Are feelings of fatigue an accurate index of mental efficiency? ..... YES NO
3. Should practice be arranged so that it is spread over several days rather than bunched in one or two long periods?..... YES NO
4. Would all children do equally well in a mental task if they put forth the same effort?... YES NO
5. Do emotions increase accuracy in acts of skill? ..... YES NO

Completion

Fill in the blank with the word or words which complete the sentence so as to make the truest statement.

1. The percentage of cases falling below the median is.....
2. Essay examinations are.....reliable than true-false examinations.
3. According to J. B. Watson the unlearned causes of fear in small children are.....and .....
4. Our rationalizations give a.....which our .....will accept as....., without giving the real..... of our.....
5. In order to explain the fact that.....men than women achieve distinction, it has been suggested that the .....of.....is greater than that of.....

Multiple Choice

Read each statement and then write the number of the best answer in the space in the margin.

(....) *1.* The best sustainer of attention is
(1) effort (2) determination (3) energy (4) interest

(....) *2.* One explanation of the method of transfer:
(1) subject matter (2) identical elements (3) instincts (4) correlation

(....) *3.* Intelligence is most significant in determining
(1) vocational success (2) moral conduct (3) height (4) school standing

(....) *4.* Burt found that delinquency was most likely to be caused by
(1) feeblemindedness (2) poverty (3) broken homes (4) lack of education

(....) *5.* Among the people in New York City in 1927, the group that would probably have the lowest median I. Q. would be the group who either came from or whose parents came from
(1) England (2) Italy (3) Japan (4) Norway

Matching

Read each statement in Group A and then put the number of the name in Group B which seems to be most closely connected with it. Some may occur more than once.

A

(....) The gland which is associated with Graves' disease
(....) The gland that is connected with gigantism
(....) The gland that is connected with cretinism
(....) The gland which delays the development of the sex gland
(....) The gland that plays a prominent part during strong emotions
(....) The gland whose removal causes death accompanied by tetany.

B

1. adrenal medulla
2. thyroid
3. thymus
4. pituitary

5. pineal
6. adrenal cortex
7. parathyroid

Ranking

A student finds himself unable because of intellectual limitations to pursue the college career which he had planned. Rank the following alternatives in order of desirability from the standpoint of mental health, giving a rank of 1 to the best, 2 to the next best, then 3, and 4 to the poorest.

(....) *a.* Never giving up
(....) *b.* Feeling resentment at his teachers for having given him failing marks
(....) *c.* Leaving college and going to work in a skilled occupation where his chances of success are good
(....) *d.* Developing an attitude of authority which will counteract his feeling of inadequacy.

Composite

I. Of what use would the following be in improving ability of high school students to reason?
1. Very valuable. *2.* Slightly valuable. *3.* No value. *4.* Harmful. Put the number of the best answer in front of each statement.

(....) *a.* Study of how great men reasoned out their discoveries
(....) *b.* A course in logic
(....) *c.* Frequent exhortation by all teachers for pupils to think
(....) *d.* Study of detective stories
(....) *e.* A course in geometry
(....) *f.* Football.

II. Classify each of the following traits, using as a key:
1. Almost entirely a matter of heredity *2.* Mainly due to heredity *3.* About equally due to heredity and to environment *4.* Mainly due to environment *5.* Almost entirely due to environment

(....) *a.* Intelligence quotient

(....) *b.* Height
(....) *c.* Religious beliefs
(....) *d.* Interest in photography
(....) *e.* Quick temper.

Interpretation of Evidence

Below are summaries of some experimental experiments and some suggested conclusions. Read each experimental summary carefully. Then consider each conclusion in turn, judging the degree of truth or falsehood by the evidence presented in the summary. Give each conclusion a number to indicate your opinion about it, using the following key:

1. Proved true beyond a reasonable doubt by the experiment.
2. Experiment indicates probable truth of statement, but evidence is insufficient for final absolute judgment.
3. The experiment gives no help in the matter.
4. Experiment indicates probable falsehood of statement, but evidence is insufficient for final absolute judgment.
5. Proved false beyond a reasonable doubt by the experiment.

In studying the results of the Army Alpha test given to the soldiers during the war, the men were grouped according to the ancestry of their parents. Below are given the per cent making scores of A and B (high scores) for several different groups.

English 20% Norwegian 4% Grecian 2%
German 8% Austrian 3% Italian 1% Polish ½%

a. There are wide differences in intelligence between different groups.
b. Men with parents from northern Europe are brighter than those with parents from southern Europe.
c. Italians and Poles should be excluded from this country.
d. The group of northern Europe ancestry represents a much higher selection than the group of southern European parentage.
e. The test was not equally fair to all groups.
f. Intelligence is only slightly important in determining who will become a good citizen.

Application of Principles

List A consists of some psychological principles. List B consists of a number of situations, statements, or problems to which one or more of the principles in A may apply. Read the first item in List B and then the principle or principles in A which you think would help you in understanding it. Put the number or numbers of the principles which apply in front of the item in B. For example, if you think that principles 2 and 3 apply, you would write 2, 3, in the space. Treat the rest of the items in B in the same way.

List *A*

1. Human action is motivated by urges, drives, or impulses which are of varying degrees of strength. Things are most quickly and permanently learned when they are related to the strong urges or drives.
2. Other things being equal, teach things in the form in which they are going to be used.
3. Exercise of a function in which the effect is neutral or very slight tends to result in little or no improvement of the function.
4. What is learned depends upon what is done by the learner, not necessarily what is presented by the teacher.

(This list could be expanded)

List *B*

(*1*) One of the junior high school boys has been bat boy for the local ball team. The big game of the season comes on a school day and the boy asks permission to be excused for the afternoon. The principal refused to excuse him.

(*2*) Miss Merrill is a very conscientious teacher and tells her fifth grade many stories about honest children. She is pained to find that, nevertheless, a number of them try to cheat in examinations.

(*3*) In a certain experiment the subject read a list of words as nearly as possible at the rate of one a second. After he had gone through the list 25 times in

this manner, he was surprised to find that he could remember only a few of the words.

(This list could be expanded)

Degree of Truth

Mark your response to each of the following questions, using this key:

5—Certain, proven truth
4—Probably true or true in a large degree
3—Doubtful, uncertain
2—Probably false or false in a large degree
1—Certain, proven falsehood

(....) (*1*) The slow learner retains better what he gets than the quick learner.
(....) (*2*) Some "lower" animals are as intelligent as the average human.
(....) (*3*) Intelligence can be increased by training.
(....) (*4*) Strong character is not inherited, but depends on formation of right habits.

Acquaintance with Experiments

Place the number corresponding to the best answer in each of the following questions in the parenthesis to the right.

1. Feebleminded children with an I. Q. of 60 who are ten years of age, show in comparison with normal six-year-olds
   (1) about the same amount of transfer from a given amount of practice.
   (2) More transfer from a given amount of practice.
   (3) Less transfer from a given amount of practice.

2. College investigations usually show a correlation between intelligence and school marks of about: ( )

3. If 1000 boys 10 years old were compared with their fathers, the resemblance would be greatest in the case of:
   (1) Interests
   (2) I. Q.
   (3) Mental Age
   (4) Writing Ability

4. How difficult is it to improve the ability of children to observe accurately and quickly? ( )
   (1) So largely a matter of native ability that practice can make no significant differences.
   (2) Practice over a period of a year gives a noticeable improvement not found in a control group.
   (3) Six practice periods of ten minutes each bring marked improvement over that found in a control group.
5. A superintendent discovers that the result of classification in his city has been to change the correlation of I. Q.'s with A. Q.'s from —.45 to .25. ( )
   a. Which of the following statements is best justified?
      (1) The dull pupils have stopped working.
      (2) Pupils are working more nearly according to their capacity.
      (3) The average level of achievement has dropped.
      (4) There is a tendency for the bright ones to find school more interesting.
   b. Which statement is least justified? ( )
6. A study of those personalities attaining leadership in college as contrasted with the average college student reveals that leaders are characterized by which of the following factors? Write all numbers corresponding to correct answers in the parenthesis. ( )
   (1) Taller
   (2) More intelligent
   (3) Expansive, extravert type
   (4) Pronounced chins
   (5) Heavier
   (6) No "freak" personalities
   (7) Older

Rating for Importance

While all of the above questions deal with scientific facts, some may have a much greater bearing upon education and its relation to all of life than others. Consider the questions and pick out the two which seem to you to involve an issue of largest moment. Write the question numbers on the bottom of the page. Then write the numbers of the two questions which seem to involve the least important matters.

F. ANSWER TO CIPHER IN CHAPTER III

NOTE: For solution substitute for each letter the letter of the alphabet following it by 3. Use digits only to separate words. The alphabet is considered circular—"a" follows "z".

3 2044 029 964 988

WITHDRAWN